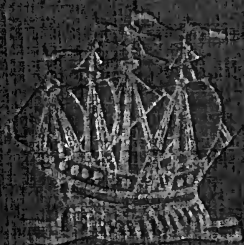
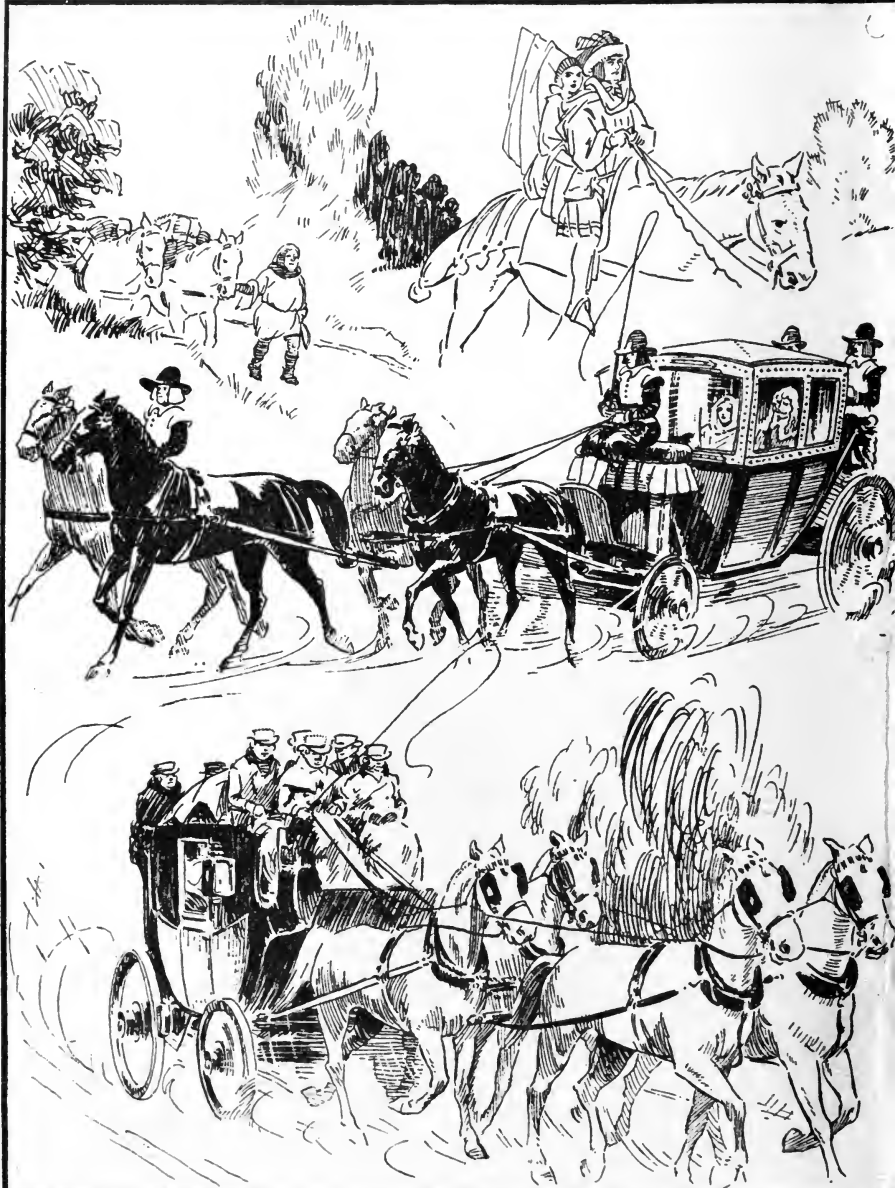


# HENRY VII To GEORGE V

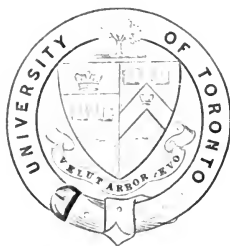
D. W. SEARLE



ARNOLD  
LEEDS







Presented to  
**The Library**  
of the  
**University of Toronto**  
by  
**Mrs. J. S. Hart**



HE

S4992h

# THE "A.L." SENIOR HISTORIES

(History through Biography)

---

BOOK VI

## HENRY VII TO GEORGE V

BY

D. V. SEARLE, B.A.

429574  
14.11.44

E. J. ARNOLD & SON LTD. Educational Publishers

LEEDS GLASGOW & BELFAST

*Printed in Great Britain.*

## The "A.L." Histories.

JUNIOR SERIES (History through Story).

SENIOR SERIES (History through Biography).

By D. V. SEARLE, B.A.

### Junior Books.

Book I. Tales from Many Lands.

„ II. In the Far-off Days.

„ III. Children in the World's Story.

„ IV. The Masters of Oakleigh Manor, a  
First History of Britain from  
1066 to the present day.

### Senior Books.

Book V. Caractacus to Caxton (to 1485).

„ VI. Henry VII to George V.

„ VII. Makers of the Modern World  
(Heroes of Industrial and Social  
History).

# CONTENTS.

---

	PAGE
1. HENRY VII .. .. .	I
2. THOMAS CROMWELL AND HENRY VIII .. ..	12
3. MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS AND QUEEN ELIZABETH ..	21
4. SIR WALTER RALEIGH .. .. .	32
5. CHARLES I .. .. .	42
6. JOHN MILTON AND OLIVER CROMWELL .. ..	60
7. JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH ..	75
8. WILLIAM PITT, WOLFE, AND CLIVE .. ..	92
9. NELSON AND NAPOLEON .. .. .	108
10. SIR ROBERT PEEL .. .. .	127
11. SIR GEORGE GREY AND AUSTRALASIA .. ..	139
12. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE .. .. .	149
13. THE AGE OF GLADSTONE AND DISRAELI .. ..	158
14. CECIL RHODES AND SOUTH AFRICA.. ..	170
15. LORD KITCHENER AND THE GREAT WAR .. ..	184
16. THE AGE OF GEORGE V; SOME PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY .. .. .	197
GENEALOGICAL TABLES .. .. .	206
TIME CHART .. .. .	208
INDEX .. .. .	210

Digitized by the Internet Archive  
in 2007 with funding from  
Microsoft Corporation

## I. HENRY VII (Reigned 1485-1509).

### PART I.

The baby who was to become Henry VII, King of England, was born at Pembroke Castle on the Feast of St. Agnes, 1457. Those were the troubled days of the



Pembroke Castle, the Birthplace of Henry VII.

*H.M. Office of Works, by permission of the Controller, H.M. Stationery Office.*

*Wars of the Roses.* Henry's mother, Margaret Beaufort, was the great-granddaughter of John of Gaunt, and that made the baby Henry an important person in the Lancastrian or Red Rose party. But the Yorkists were in power at that time, and so Henry's childhood was spent in strong castles in Wales, guarded by his uncle, Jasper Tudor, for his father was dead.

Henry was a delicate little boy, but he was quick and intelligent, and fond of hawking and hunting. So, in spite of the wars, he was happy enough so long as he was with his mother and uncle, who appointed kind tutors for him, and gave him falcons and ponies. But in 1468, Harlech Castle, the last stronghold of the Lancastrians, was captured by the Yorkists, and Henry, who was then eleven, found himself suddenly a prisoner among strangers.

After two years, however, the fortunes of war put the Lancastrians in power again. Jasper Tudor, who had been banished, then returned, and took Henry Tudor to court. The king, Henry VI, was very pleased with the boy's "wit and likely towardness," and laughingly said that he, too, might one day be King of England. This was only a joke, for King Henry VI's own son, Edward, was, of course, heir to the throne.

Yet, within a few months, the Yorkists triumphed again, Edward was killed after the battle of Tewkesbury, and King Henry VI was put to death. So fourteen-year-old Henry Tudor really became the rightful King of England in Lancastrian eyes.

But the Lancastrians had been so badly beaten that they could not hope to stand against the Yorkists for many years, so Jasper took Henry and fled abroad.

The winds carried their ship to Brittany, which was not then part of France, but an independent duchy, and there the Duke Francis was kind to Henry, though he kept him closely guarded.

So the boy grew up in exile, while his mother, who had married again, was plotting in England for his return as king. Soon there were many to help her, for people began to hate the cruel Richard III, who had stolen the throne from his little nephews, and was

keeping them locked up in the Tower. The plot was that Henry should land secretly in Wales, where the Tudors had many friends, and where many gentlemen promised to join him and fight for him. Then, if he won, he was to marry the Lady Elizabeth, sister of the little princes, and real head of the House of York, and so unite the Red and White Roses at last.



Richard, Duke of Gloucester, afterwards  
Richard III.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

Richard III knew there was danger ahead ; so he assembled a large army, and went to Nottingham in the very centre of England, so that he could get quickly to whatever part of the coast Henry Tudor landed on. But, by the time Henry did land at Milford Haven, with a body of troops lent him by the King of France, so many people had turned against Richard that he was not even told. Henry marched forward unopposed through Wales and Lancashire

and Cheshire, and many Welsh chieftains and English knights had joined him before Richard heard he was in England.

Then Richard hastened to meet him, and in 1485 a great battle was fought near Bosworth, in Leicestershire. Richard's army was defeated, and he himself was killed. He had gone into battle wearing his crown, which was found by one of Henry's followers, and Henry Tudor was at once crowned on the battlefield, all his men raising a great shout of " King Harry, King Harry ! "

## PART II.

Henry VII, the new king, at once sent messengers to the Princess Elizabeth, who had been imprisoned by Richard III in Yorkshire with her cousin, the little Earl of Warwick, the son of Edward IV's younger brother, Clarence. This unhappy little boy, who was only ten, Henry sent to the Tower later on, for there was a danger that the Yorkists might try to make him king. But the Lady Elizabeth he married, as he had promised, and there was great rejoicing in London.

The streets were hung with Henry's standards, the banner of St. George, and the red fiery dragon of Wales "beaten upon white and green," and a third standard with "a dun cow painted upon yellow tartan." There were processions and pageants for two days before the wedding, and two days after it; and fairs were held, with wrestling and bear baiting and cock fighting, while, at night, huge bonfires were lit.

Then Henry VII went on a journey round his kingdom, restoring the rule of law and order, and encouraging the merchants; yet, hardly had he taken the first steps towards straightening out the disorder left by the Wars of the Roses, when fresh trouble came.

The Yorkists had found an adventurous boy called



Henry VII.

*National Portrait Gallery.*



Lambert Simnel, who was, in actual fact, the son of a poor tradesman in Oxford, but who agreed to pretend to be the little Earl of Warwick, escaped from the Tower. The great Yorkist lords took him to Ireland, where he was accepted as the true Earl of Warwick, and lodged with great honour in Dublin Castle. There, later, he was crowned King of England, in the name of Edward VI, and all the banished Yorkists swore to fight for him.

Henry's first move to meet the danger was to have the real Warwick taken out of the Tower, and led through the streets, one Sunday, for all the citizens of London to see; but many still believed in the pretender. Then Henry posted guards around the coasts, and had beacons built to send warning in case of invasion; he also made regulations to keep good order in the army, and to prevent the wild pillaging and stealing of which the soldiers had been guilty in earlier civil wars.

So he was well prepared when the Yorkists landed in Lancashire with a horde of half-savage Irish warriors, and also some well-trained German mercenaries, with whose aid they hoped to win the throne for the eleven-year-old pretender.

Henry met the rebels at Stoke-on-Trent, and, after a



Elizabeth of York, Queen of Henry VII.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

fierce fight, he utterly defeated them (1487). The Irish, who fought almost naked, throwing darts, were the last to break before the well-trained English archers; many of the Yorkist lords were killed, and Lambert Simnel was taken prisoner. As he was only a boy, Henry VII did not put him to death for treason, as he might have done, but made him a scullion in the royal kitchen.

Perhaps young Lambert was happier turning joints on a great spit over an open fire in the cheerful kitchens, than he had been in the uneasy pomp of Dublin Castle, where men had called him "King Edward." At any rate, he behaved so well that Henry presently promoted him to be a falconer, and he rode out with the king's followers, dressed in fine livery, with a trained hawk chained to his wrist.

Henry VII's prompt suppression of this rebellion, and his kind and generous treatment of Lambert Simnel, won him much admiration in England, where men remembered the cruel imprisonments, tortures, and murders which had been the lot of Richard III's enemies. There seemed at last to be a chance of real peace in the land.

But Henry VII now had to go to war abroad. Duke Francis of Brittany, who had sheltered Henry when he was in exile, had died leaving no sons, and his little daughter Anne, aged twelve, had become duchess. Now, the kings of France had long wished to add Brittany to their realm, and Charles VIII thought this a good moment to seize the duchy. The small duchess and her ministers put up a spirited defence, and Henry sent soldiers to help her. This he did, partly in gratitude to Brittany, partly because he thought the growing power of France was a danger to England, and partly because Englishmen were eager to fight their old enemy, and uphold English honour abroad.

For nearly five years Brittany remained a cause of trouble between England and France ; but at last the matter was settled when at seventeen the Duchess Anne agreed to marry the king of France (1492). So Brittany became part of France, and the duchess became a queen.

Meantime, Henry VII had made his position stronger by betrothing his son, the young Prince Arthur, to Princess Catherine of Aragon, and so allying himself with Spain. Accordingly, he made peace with France, and withdrew his soldiers on condition that Charles VIII paid him 745,000 golden crowns, and promised not to harbour any rebels against the English throne.

For rebellion was again coming. Another pretender, one Perkin Warbeck, the son of a boatman of Tournai, in Flanders, was calling himself Richard, Duke of York, the younger of the two little princes who had actually been murdered in the Tower nine years before, but who were supposed by many to have escaped. The Yorkists and all Henry's enemies abroad supported him, though many knew quite well that he was not the real Duke of York.

Margaret, Duchess of Burgundy, who was Edward IV's sister, and who hated Henry VII, sheltered Perkin at her court, gave him fine clothes, taught him the manners of a nobleman, and also informed him of what he would have known about the House of York, if he had really been Duke Richard. Another of Henry VII's enemies lent him money and men, arms and ships. Then Perkin tried to land at Deal, but failed, and so he sailed to Ireland, which had never wholly submitted to Henry's rule.

There he found many to help him, including the Earl of Kildare, a very powerful chieftain who had also helped Lambert Simnel, but had afterwards sworn loyalty to Henry and been pardoned. This Kildare was

a wild, handsome fellow, and Henry VII had pardoned him and made him Lord Deputy because he was so popular that he was one of the few people who could really keep order in Ireland if he chose.

But though the Earl of Kildare had supported Lambert Simnel openly, he only helped Perkin in secret ; and, having failed to make very much headway, Perkin next sailed to Scotland.

James IV of Scotland also disliked Henry VII, and was very jealous of him and of England's growing greatness ; he was therefore delighted to help Perkin. He got together an army and invaded England with Perkin, hoping to win back Berwick for himself. There was a good deal of burning and pillaging, but the raid was beaten back, and Perkin returned again to Ireland.

There he was once more disappointed, for Henry VII had wisely turned a blind eye to Kildare's plotting, and again made him Lord Deputy ; and Kildare, not wanting to offend Henry again so soon, would not help Perkin.

Perkin then made a last desperate attack on England. He landed in Cornwall, where there had lately been great discontent at Henry's heavy taxes, and hoped the Cornish would fight for him. He besieged Exeter, failed to take it, and fled to the New Forest, where he was captured. Later he was imprisoned in the Tower of London.

### PART III.

Henry VII now made peace with Scotland, and took the first step towards uniting the two countries by marrying his daughter Margaret to King James.

Meanwhile, the Archbishop of Dublin had come to England and told Henry many things against Kildare. Kildare promptly followed to defend himself. He was perfectly aware that many of the charges were true, and

asked for a "learned counsel" to speak for him. Henry told him he might choose any man in England.

"Give me your hand on it," cried the earl, which was not quite a courtly way of speaking; but Henry, amused, gave it him, saying, "You had better make a careful choice as to your counsel, for I think he will have enough to do for you."

"Well," said the earl, "I can see no better man than you, and by St. Bride I will choose none other."

"A wiser man might have chosen worse," said the king, and could not help laughing.

"You see what sort of man he is," cried the archbishop. "All Ireland cannot rule him."

"No?" said the king. "Then he must be the man to rule all Ireland."\* And so Henry made him Lord Deputy again, and Ireland gave less trouble for the rest of his reign than she had done for many years past or was to do for years to come.

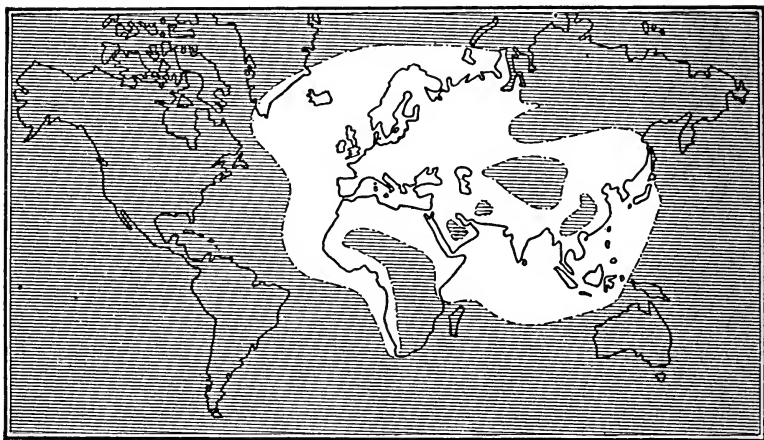
Henry VII showed equal wisdom in his rule in England. He made good laws, and saw that they were justly administered. He encouraged the movement among English scholars at that time, which was known as the "New Learning," and which was much helped by the invention of printing, introduced into England by William Caxton in 1476.

One of the leaders of this movement in England was John Colet, Dean of St. Paul's, and the founder of St. Paul's School, which is still one of the great public schools of England. Henry VII, too, founded schools and colleges, and built many splendid buildings.

It was during Henry VII's reign that Christopher Columbus discovered America in 1492, and Vasco da Gama, a Portuguese, rounded the Cape of Good Hope

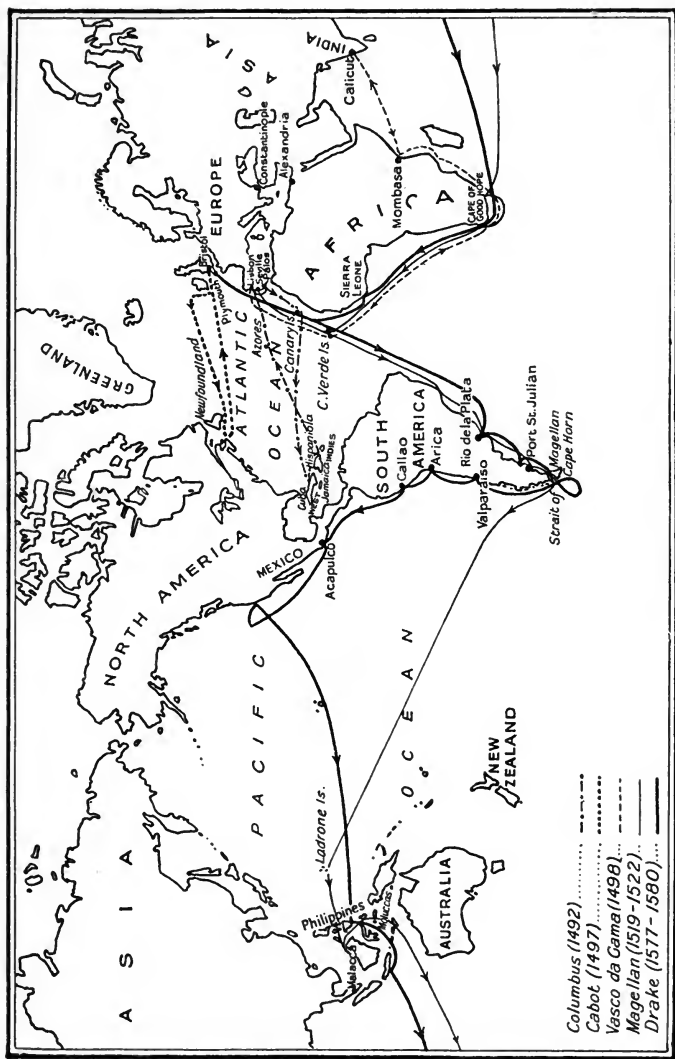
\* From *The Book of Howth*.

in 1497, and reached Calicut, on the west coast of India, in the following year. Henry VII also encouraged trade and voyages of exploration. In 1497, he had ships fitted out for John Cabot and his son Sebastian, who sailed from Bristol, and discovered the island since known as Newfoundland. They claimed it for Henry VII, and it is the very oldest of all England's colonies.



The part unshaded shows the extent of the known World before Columbus's Great Voyage.

Henry VII was the first English king to use *gunpowder*, an invention of the Chinese which was brought into Europe towards the end of the Hundred Years' War. The armour of the knights was of little use against this invention. Armour disappeared, and so, too, did armies of retainers in the service of nobles and wealthy subjects. For Henry VII realized that if the great lords were allowed to keep fighting men they could the more easily fight against their king; and laws were made to prohibit the keeping of any armed force, except that which was



Map illustrating the voyages of discovery of Columbus, Cabot, da Gama, Magellan, and Drake.

in the king's own service, and this was a well-disciplined body of men.

So in Henry VII's reign we see the passing away of the Middle Ages and the birth of modern England. For when he came to the throne England was poor, divided, and discontented, and of small importance in Europe. But when he died in 1509 she was richer, united, and content, and free from any danger of invasion. Later on, his son, Henry VIII, showed Europe the power of this new England.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Tell something of Henry VII's childhood. How did he unite the Roses?
2. Why may Henry VII rightly be regarded as a merciful king?
3. Name some big changes that were going on in Henry VII's reign, and say something about each.

## 2. THOMAS CROMWELL and HENRY VIII (1509-1547).

### PART I.

Thomas Cromwell was born at Putney, probably in the year that Henry VII became King of England. Putney in those days was a small village in Surrey, by the Thames side, about four miles west of London; and Cromwell was not yet the Earl of Essex, but plain "young Tom," the son of a Putney blacksmith.

Young Tom's earliest playground, the forge, is one of the few things that have not changed very much from that day to this. There was then the same warm singeing smell as now, together with the same big anvil and heavy, long-handled hammers, the same glowing fire, and the same wild sparks flying up, as the smith hit the red-hot iron into the shape of horseshoes.



It was an exciting playground while the child was little, but as Tom grew up he became ambitious. He longed for more stirring adventures, and he longed for power; he began to dream of shaping men's lives and bending them to his will, as he had learnt to help his father in shaping and bending the fiery iron. So when he was still quite young, he became a soldier and went abroad.

He fought and travelled in Germany, France, and Italy, and he made good use of his time. For in his travels he learnt not only soldiering but also several languages, something about law, and a great deal about men. He had a quick, clear brain, sound judgment, and a retentive memory; and he was also an entertaining talker. So, even though he was not a very good scholar, and had never helped to win any big victory, he was, all the same, a man remarkable enough to win the notice of the great Cardinal Wolsey, chief minister of England.

Wolsey himself was a man who, like Cromwell, had begun life in a humble position. Like Cromwell, too, he was ambitious and loved power, and he had worked his way up through various offices in the Church until he had become a bishop and a great statesman.

Wolsey also loved splendour and finery. He had a court of his own, almost as splendid as the king's, and lived surrounded by pages and serving men in rich



Thomas Cromwell, Earl of Essex.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

liveries, with a whole retinue of secretaries, captains, and fine gentlemen at his beck and call.

Cromwell became one of his secretaries, and later his lawyer ; and, in his turn, he kept servants and clerks, and grew in power and importance, until the old days in the forge must have seemed far off and strange, or perhaps were quite forgotten.

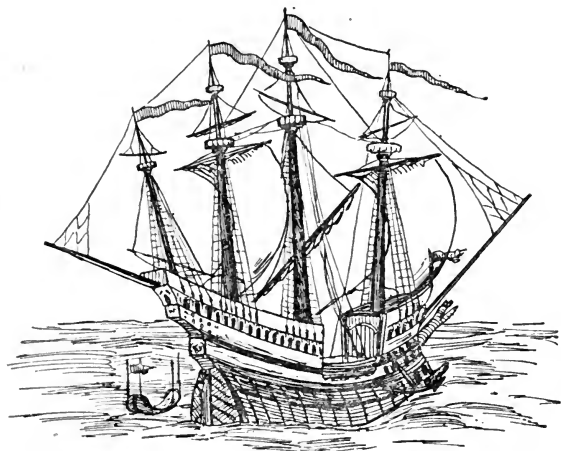
By then Henry VII had long been dead ; his son, Henry VIII, had become king (1509) when he was only eighteen. At that age he was very popular ; for he was handsome and gallant and high-spirited, and he loved games and laughter, dancing and fine clothes. His people loved a fine show, too, and they cheered him as he rode through the streets, dressed in white satin, and attended by his splendid courtiers and men-at-arms. They were as eager as he was to show the other princes of Europe what a strong country England had grown, and how brilliant a king she had.

France was at this time the most powerful country in Europe ; and Spain, Venice, and the Pope had formed the so-called Holy League to curb her power. Henry VIII joined the Holy League and invaded France, winning the battle of Guinegate, commonly called the " Battle of the Spurs," because the French knights galloped away so fast.



Cardinal Wolsey.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

Now, Henry VII had tried to make friends with Scotland through the marriage of his daughter Margaret to King James IV ; but Scotland was really more friendly with France, and, to help the French, the Scottish king invaded England in Henry VIII's reign. But Henry



The kind of ship in which Henry VIII crossed to France.

VIII's troops defeated him, too, at the Battle of Flodden Field (1513), where James himself and many of his nobles were killed.

The English were, of course, delighted with these successes ; but Henry's allies in the Holy League thought it as dangerous for England to be over-powerful as for France, and refused to help him any more. So, on the advice of Wolsey, Henry made peace with France.

Wolsey was very clever at keeping a balance of power among the sovereigns of Europe, that is to say, at making such alliances that no one country should become strong enough to threaten the others with invasion and conquest.

He had a difficult time, for Henry VIII was not the only hot-tempered eager young king in Europe.

Francis I of France, and Charles of Spain, who was elected Emperor in 1519, with the title of Charles V, were also young and loved pomp and power. So, in spite of Wolsey, Henry VIII presently went to war again. This time he was not so successful, and he spent a great deal of money for very small results. The English, who had to pay heavy taxes to provide the money, were no longer pleased with the idea of war.



Henry VIII at the time of his divorce from Catherine of Aragon.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

## PART II.

Wolsey managed not only to make peace, but also to make friends with France. Soon, however, a fresh trouble arose for him. Henry VIII had married

Catherine of Aragon, the widow of his brother Arthur, and they had a daughter, named Mary. But Henry wanted a son to succeed him as king, and also he wanted to marry a lady of the court named Anne Boleyn.

So Henry tried to persuade the Pope to say that his first marriage had been unlawful, and so enable him to marry again. He left this very difficult matter to Wolsey to arrange ; but Wolsey failed, and Henry sent him away from the court in disgrace.

Cromwell was loyal to his master Wolsey, and tried to

defend him; but, very soon after, the great cardinal died (1530), and Cromwell became more ambitious than ever. It was he who helped Henry to put into practice a new plan for divorcing Catherine and marrying Anne Boleyn.

As he could not get the Pope's permission, Cromwell suggested that Henry should set himself above the Pope's authority. Step by step the plan grew until in 1534 the *Act of Supremacy* was passed, which declared the king "the Supreme Head on Earth of the Church in England," and this was the beginning of the *Reformation* in England.

Henry VIII could now choose his own bishops, and he choose men who arranged him a divorce, and declared his marriage with Anne Boleyn quite lawful, so that Anne's baby daughter Elizabeth was later able to become Queen of England.

But the Act of Supremacy brought other changes. The clergy were exhorted to teach children the Lord's prayer, the creed, and the ten commandments in English. And Bibles in English were chained in the churches for people to read—printing was much too costly in those days for everyone to have a copy in his own home. Many of the clergy disliked the new ways, but Cromwell made harsh laws to force them to obey.



Catherine of Aragon.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

He found the monks, in the many monasteries there were then in England, the most difficult people to manage, for they still, either openly or secretly, looked upon the Pope, not Henry VIII, as the real Head of the Church. So Cromwell advised Henry to do away altogether with the monasteries. Henry agreed readily, for the monasteries had rich lands and treasure, and Henry was in constant need of money.

Already, while he served Wolsey, Cromwell had closed down some of the smaller religious houses because of the bad behaviour of some of the monks. It is true that some of them were lazy and ignorant; but it is equally true that many others did great good among the poor, and had helped to improve farming, trading, and education. Throughout the Middle Ages, indeed, the monks had done great things for our land and people.

So Cromwell made many enemies, both for himself and for the king, when the monasteries were destroyed and the monks were dispersed, and their lands given to Henry's courtiers.

A rising took place in Yorkshire, which was called the Pilgrimage of Grace, but the rebel pilgrims were defeated, and their leaders beheaded.

Men began to fear and hate the Lord Cromwell, as



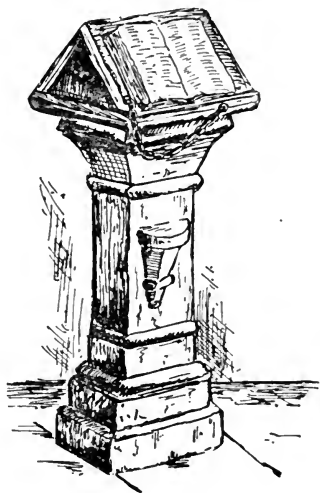
Anne Bolcyn.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

he was now called, because of his harsh punishments, and his severe and often unjust measures with the monasteries. Many of the great nobles, too, were jealous of him, and resented that a man of "base blood" should have so much power, and stand so close to the king. They began to plot against him, and soon saw a chance for his undoing.

Though Henry VIII had ceased to admit the authority of the Pope, the Church of England remained very like the Roman Church. In some other countries, however, much greater changes in religion were taking place at this time. The *Reformation*, or reforming of the Church, had made some countries throw off the Pope's rule, and become "Protestant."

Cromwell thought it would give England a strong position in Europe, if Henry VIII made friends with these countries. Both Anne Boleyn, and Henry's third wife, Jane Seymour, the mother of Edward, afterwards Edward VI, were dead; so Cromwell suggested that Henry should make the alliance by marrying Anne of Cleves, a German princess—for Germany was one of the most Protestant countries.

Henry agreed and Cromwell made all the arrangements for the wedding, which took place in the spring. At the same time (April, 1540), Henry made Cromwell Earl of Essex for all the services he had rendered the king. But Henry was fickle, and his temper uncertain. He did not like Anne of Cleves, because she was very plain, and



A Chained Bible.

European affairs had altered so that England would be quite safe without the Protestant alliance. This made Henry angry with Cromwell for having suggested the marriage.



Fountains Abbey, Yorkshire, one of the richest monasteries at the time of the Dissolution.

*H.M. Office of Works, by permission of the Controller,  
H.M. Stationery Office.*

The lords who were jealous of Cromwell, and had been made still more jealous when he became an earl, saw Henry's anger and were quick to seize their chance. They told the king that Cromwell was a traitor and was plotting against his Majesty ; and, one morning in June, Henry VIII committed to the Tower the man whom he had made an earl less than eight weeks before.

Cromwell's friends protested as much as they dared, and he himself wrote many pitiful letters to the king, imploring for pardon. But the jealous nobles declared him " the most corrupt traitor and deceiver of the king that had been known during the reign," and condemned him to be beheaded. So on July 28th, 1540, Thomas Cromwell was led out to the scaffold on Tower Hill.

He was a proud man and a hard man ; he had risen



from a blacksmith's forge to a position second only to the king's in power, and he had not always used his power well. But he was not a traitor ; he had served his king loyally, and he went bravely to his death.

Many who had found him severe, or had been jealous of his power, were glad when he died, but others sorrowed for him. They remembered that " his presence was stately and noble, his temper patient, and his way industrious." They compared him with Wolsey, Henry VIII's other great minister who had also died in disfavour with the king. Some even wrote that Thomas Cromwell did more for England " in one month with his subtle head, than Wolsey in twelve months with his stately train."

#### QUESTIONS.

1. What victories did Henry VIII win in the early part of his reign ?
2. Tell something of Thomas Cromwell's early life.
3. How did Cromwell win and lose Henry VIII's favour ?
4. Write a letter about Cromwell's doings, as one of the " Pilgrims " of the Pilgrimage of Grace might have done.
5. Tell of Henry VIII's quarrel and breach with the Pope.

### 3. MARY QUEEN OF SCOTS and QUEEN ELIZABETH (1558-1603)

#### PART I.

Two years after the fall of Cromwell, Henry VIII made war on his nephew, James V of Scotland. James was an independent and ambitious ruler, and this annoyed Henry very much ; for as Henry was the young king's uncle, and by now something of a tyrant, he had hoped to be able to shape Scottish affairs to his own liking. Finding, however, that he could not do so by fair promises and persuasion, Henry, instead, sent an army of thirty thousand men across the border. At the battle

of Solway Moss (1542), the Scots were so badly beaten that the disaster broke James's heart, and he died, leaving the throne to his baby daughter *Mary Stuart*, who was only five days old.

Scotland was in such a troubled state that the tiny queen was taken abroad for safety, just as her great-grandfather Henry VII had been taken from England. Her mother's family, the great French lords of Guise, took care of her, while her mother, Mary of Guise, ruled Scotland for her as queen regent.

Mary Stuart was brought up as befitted a very great lady in those days. She learnt Italian, French and Latin, singing and beautiful intricate needlework, and all the forms and ceremonies of courtly behaviour. She could ride and dance, and as she grew up she became very lovely, gay, and light of foot, delighting the French court by her grace and charm.

When she was only in her sixteenth year, she was married to the Dauphin Francis, the heir to the French throne, a handsome boy who was a year younger than herself.

Pageants and a tournament and feastings were given to celebrate the wedding. Mary's dress was sewn with pearls; she was happy and excited, and her laughter was enchanting. It seemed then that the world would always laugh with her; but there was much sorrow for her in the years ahead.

In the same year as Mary's marriage, Elizabeth, daughter of Henry VIII and Anne Boleyn, became Queen of England. Elizabeth was in her twenty-fifth year, a little more than nine years older than Mary, and although there were great feastings in England, too, for her coronation, she did not laugh. She had already learnt from bitter experience during the reigns of her half-

brother and half-sister, Edward VI and Mary, that life for princesses and queens is not always quite happy.

The Reformation, those great changes in the Church which began in many countries during Henry VIII's reign, had caused much unrest. *Edward VI* (1547-1553)

had introduced the English Prayer Book, and a service in English thus replaced a service in Latin. *Mary Tudor* (Queen Mary 1553-1558) restored the Pope's authority, and there were many burnings of Protestants. Thus Elizabeth had to turn at once to her country's affairs. Both in England and Scotland, some people adhered to the new Protestant Church, some clung to the ancient Church of Rome, and there was bitterness and distrust between them.



Queen Elizabeth.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

Elizabeth found a middle way. She passed an Act of Uniformity which insisted on a uniform service in all the churches of the land. This service, as set forth in the Prayer Book, kept something of both forms of worship, and was accepted quietly by the majority of people.

But in Scotland greater changes were made. In spite of all that Mary's mother, the queen regent, could do, the old church was suppressed, and the new doctrine was enforced by John Knox, a Protestant and disciple of a great reformer named John Calvin.

This religious change in Scotland meant trouble for

Mary Stuart, who was a Roman Catholic. But it did not at first affect the old friendship between Scotland and France, for Mary's young husband Francis had become king of France through the death of his father, and, of course, wished well to his wife's country. Francis, however, was very delicate ; he reigned only a little over a year, during which Mary Stuart was Queen both of Scotland and of France. Francis died in 1560 ; so, before she was quite eighteen, Mary was left a widow in a country suddenly grown unfriendly to her, because those who hated her mother's family were coming into power.

Mary was very collected and brave in this crisis, winning the admiration of even her enemies by her beauty and courage. In all France, where many malicious things were often said against people in high places, there was not one who could find any tale to tell against her. Yet she knew that she would have to leave the sunny land she loved, and go north to her own kingdom of rough manners and cold mists.

When the time of her mourning had passed, she sent to Elizabeth asking leave to travel through England. Elizabeth refused leave, unless Mary first signed a treaty promising to send away all the French soldiers who were in Scottish service ; for Elizabeth thought these troops a danger to England. She knew that there were people in her realm, who would have liked to make war, and put Mary on the throne instead of herself, because Mary was a Catholic. The French troops from the north might well have helped them, and Elizabeth had no intention of risking any danger to her throne which she could possibly avoid. She was very much a queen, and she meant to remain a queen.

But Mary Stuart, too, was a high-spirited woman. She received Elizabeth's messenger graciously standing,

young and beautiful in a widow's black gown, but she refused Elizabeth's terms with quiet firmness. She must, she said, consult her Parliament before she signed anything, and since Elizabeth would not let her travel by land, she would go to Scotland by sea. Throck-



Mary Queen of Scots.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

morton, the messenger, was so surprised that he scarcely believed her; for the journey by sea was a long and, indeed, dangerous one for a woman in those days of little wooden ships more or less at the mercy of the winds. Even when Mary's belongings were packed into chests and into hump-backed, nail-studded boxes, and sent down to the coast with the ladies and gentlemen of her household, Throckmorton still doubted. But Mary herself followed and embarked, and her galleys

set sail, leaving no further room for doubt.

The winds were good, and Mary reached Leith before the Scots expected her. No proper preparations had been made for her reception, and her first impression of the country was enough to discourage a less gallant lady. Mary, however, was not discouraged. Even the quarrelling and treachery among the turbulent Scottish lords failed to overcome her; and her beauty and brave bearing soon won her the allegiance of many of them, and they

supported her claim to be regarded as Elizabeth's successor to the English throne.

This was not at all to Elizabeth's liking. She was already at war with France, and feared that Mary might attack her from the north, so she played a game which none other could play so well as she. She flirted with the



Holyrood Palace, Edinburgh.

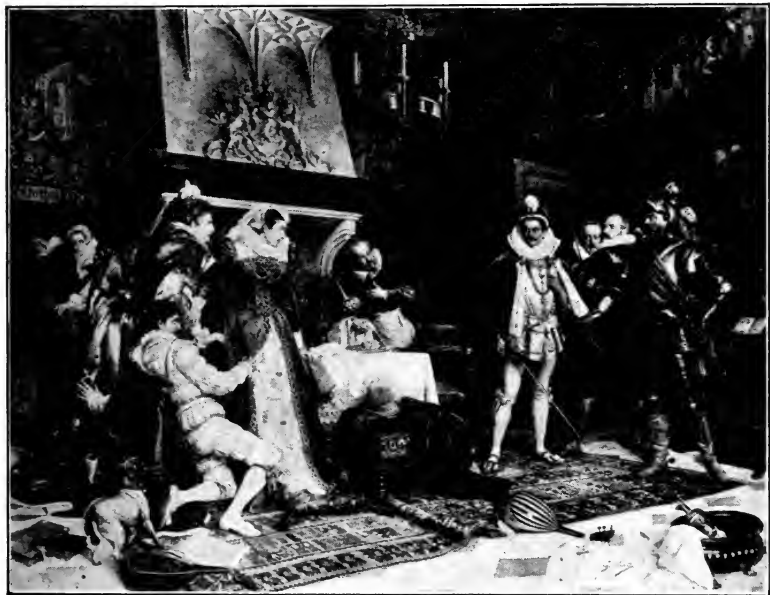
*E.N.A.*

many offers of marriage which she received from European princes who desired an alliance with a country as important as England had now become. First, she would seem to favour a Spanish prince, then the Swedish prince or the French, keeping them all in a state of great uncertainty. They sent to her ambassadors with rich presents, Elizabeth sending them rich presents in return ; yet none of them dared to press her too far, for fear of losing her altogether, and she kept them balanced, as it were, one against another.

## PART II.

Meanwhile, Mary Stuart married her cousin, Henry, Lord Darnley. For a time they were happy together, but Darnley turned out to be a man of vicious and cruel

character, which caused his wife to distrust and then to hate him. One of Mary's most attached and valued servants was her secretary, an Italian called David Rizzio, of whom Darnley grew bitterly jealous. He plotted with



The Murder of Rizzio. From the picture by Eugene Siberdt.

some nobles to murder Rizzio; and, one day, with Darnley at their head, they burst into the chamber where Mary was seated with her secretary, and dragged him into the next room, where they killed him with their daggers. Mary never forgave her husband. Even when, a few months later, her little son James was born (1566), the breach between her and Darnley was not really healed. She turned more and more to the Earl of Bothwell, a

fierce, warlike lord whose strength may have given her a sense of shelter and safety among her many enemies.

Some time later, Darnley fell ill ; and while Mary was away, the house where he lay was blown up with gunpowder, and he perished. Bothwell was strongly suspected of having arranged the explosion, and he was tried at Edinburgh for the murder of Darnley ; but the city was full of his own followers, and he was acquitted.

Then Mary made the greatest mistake of her life. She married Bothwell, and immediately the nobles declared that she had planned Darnley's murder with him, and they rose in rebellion against her. They captured Mary at Carberry Hill, a few miles from Edinburgh ; but Bothwell escaped, and reached Denmark, where he was put into prison, and kept in confinement until his death, nearly eleven years after.

Mary, too, was imprisoned in Lochleven Castle, and forced to give up the throne to her little son James, with her half-brother, the Earl of Moray, as regent. Moray was a Protestant, and had already led one rebellion against her, earlier in her reign, and Mary determined to fight against him.

With the help of George Douglas, younger brother of the Laird of Lochleven, and a young kinsman of his named Willie Douglas, she escaped from Lochleven Castle at night, and was rowed across the lake to where many still loyal to her waited, ready to fight and die if need be, though some knew it was in a lost cause.

Mary was, in fact, utterly defeated at Langside, near Glasgow, and fled south into England (1568).

This was the very best thing that could have happened from Elizabeth's point of view. She knew that all danger of an attack upon England from Scotland, or by the Scots and French in alliance, was over ; for Mary was entirely



in her power, and the new Scottish government sent away the French troops.

But, in imprisoning Mary in England, Elizabeth made a new and dangerous enemy for herself. *Philip II of Spain*, the leader of the Catholic Powers, had long wished to win back the position he had held in England as husband of Mary Tudor. He thought this could best be done by deposing Elizabeth, and putting Mary Stuart on the throne, since she also was a Catholic. Mary, therefore, became the centre of a number of plots, and there was a serious rising in the north of England, where both lords and peasantry still clung secretly to the Catholic faith.

Elizabeth stamped out the rebellion with great severity, and strict laws were passed against the Roman Catholics, but the plotting went on, backed by Philip. In all the plots Elizabeth was to be seized, and Mary put on the throne, with the help of Spanish troops and the Catholic English. But Elizabeth's great minister, William Cecil, who had an army of spies, always discovered what was going on, and the leaders were captured, and imprisoned or executed, before their plans could be carried out.

Meanwhile the English sailors harried the Spanish ships at sea, and plundered the rich Spanish settlements in America. The most daring of them all was Francis Drake, who did such damage and took possession of so much Spanish treasure, that Philip decided to invade England.

While he was getting his fleet ready, and all England realized the coming danger, yet another plot was discovered, by which Elizabeth was to be murdered and the crown given to Mary. The plot was led by Anthony Babington, an English Roman Catholic; many other Catholics were concerned in it, some of whom held offices

in Elizabeth's own household. They were condemned as traitors, and were beheaded. Parliament then pressed for



Lord Burghley urging Elizabeth to sign the death-warrant of Mary Queen of Scots. From the picture by J. Schrade in the Metropolitan Museum of Art, New York.

*Rischgitz.*

the execution of Mary, to put an end to the plotting and the peril to which Elizabeth was exposed.

Elizabeth hesitated a long time, and Mary awaited her decision with the quiet bravery she had shown at most of the critical moments in her life. She had done wrong

and foolish things, she had suffered and caused much suffering, but she was still beautiful, and the spell of her beauty and her courage still held those around her. When at last Elizabeth yielded to Parliament and her ministers of state, by signing Mary's death warrant, it was her ladies and her servants who were overcome with grief, not Mary Stuart.

She was beheaded at Fotheringay Castle in February, 1587, after she had been almost nineteen years a prisoner in England. Lovely, unhappy Mary, she passed into sad legends and poems—while, two months later, England rang with shouts of triumph and cries of joy. For, in April, Drake sailed boldly right into Cadiz harbour, and burnt many of the Spanish ships and stores assembled there for the intended invasion of England. "Singeing the Spanish king's beard" he called this daring and successful exploit, and it delayed the sailing of the Armada for over a year.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Tell how Mary Queen of Scots passed her early years.
2. Explain why Mary Queen of Scots was a danger to Queen Elizabeth.
3. What great mistake did Mary make after Darnley's death, and what came of it?
4. Why was Mary at last put to death?
5. Who do you think was the better woman, and worthier of admiration, Mary Stuart or Elizabeth? Write down two or three reasons for your choice.

## 4. SIR WALTER RALEIGH.

(The reigns of Elizabeth and James I.)

## PART I.

One of the leading men who helped to defeat the Armada, that great fleet which Philip of Spain finally launched against England in 1588, was *Sir Walter Raleigh*.

Raleigh was perhaps the most brilliant and dazzling figure in all Elizabeth's splendid court. Like many great seamen of his day, he was born in Devonshire. Of a staunch Protestant family, he early learnt to hate "his Catholic Majesty of Spain" and the terrible Spanish Inquisition, the court which the Catholic Church had instituted to detect and suppress heresy.

When he was only sixteen or seventeen years of age, he went to France to fight for the French Protestants, or Huguenots, as it was the custom to call them. Though so youthful, he proved himself a fine soldier; and, after his return to England, being given a naval command under his half-brother, Sir Humphrey Gilbert, he proved himself an even finer seaman.

He harried the Spanish ships, until Philip sent complaints about him to Elizabeth, for England and Spain were not yet openly at war. Elizabeth loved daring young men, and did not dream of punishing Raleigh; but she wished to keep peace with Spain, and so she had him sent to Ireland.

There he helped to put down a rebellion, and though to-day his methods seem cruel, he won the respect and attachment of his followers, and many stories have been told of his courage.

Once one of his men fell into a bog during a fight, and Raleigh risked his own life to save him. "At one

moment he was unhorsed, and stood, with his pistol and quarterstaff, one man against twenty," but he rescued the man, and got all his band clear without loss of life.

Then he was sent back to London with letters, and in 1581 he first met Elizabeth. The story has very often been told of how the queen was walking with her courtiers when she came to a "plashy place." While she hesitated a moment, holding her wide silken skirts, a handsome stranger leapt forward, and spread his new plush cloak over the mud so that she might pass dryshod. The stranger was Raleigh, of whose exploits Elizabeth had already heard, and he quickly became her favourite courtier.

She made him the captain of her Guard, and he held many other offices as well, and grew very rich. He had silver armour made for himself, set with diamonds and rubies, his hatband was of pearls, his doublet white satin, and his shoes with jewelled heels and buckles were said to be worth more than "six thousand six hundred gold pieces."

But Raleigh did not spend all his money on fine



Raleigh laying down his cloak for Queen Elizabeth.  
After the picture by Leslie.

*Rischitz.*

clothes. He was the first Englishman to dream of a great empire beyond the seas, and in 1583 he fitted out an expedition with the object of founding colonies in America. But when all was ready, Elizabeth forbade him to go ; she could not spare her favourite. The ships sailed under Sir Humphrey Gilbert, and, on the way back, his ship was lost with all hands. In all probability, if Raleigh had gone, he would never have returned.

In April of the following year (1584), Raleigh sent out two ship-captains on a voyage of exploration. They sailed to Florida, and reached what is now the State of North Carolina. The name of Virginia (in allusion to the " Virgin Queen ") was given to the vast coastal region extending north of Florida. The first settlers went out in 1585 ; by the next year, however, the little colony was abandoned. Two other attempts at founding a colony proved as unsuccessful, and Raleigh gave up his design.

Then Raleigh fought under Drake against the Armada, in 1588, and when the great Spanish ships had been put to flight, he returned again from the roar of cannon and the heave of the seas to the jewelled glitter of court life.

But, a little time after, he seriously offended Elizabeth by marrying one of her maids of honour, Elizabeth Throckmorton. The great queen loved flattery and praise ;

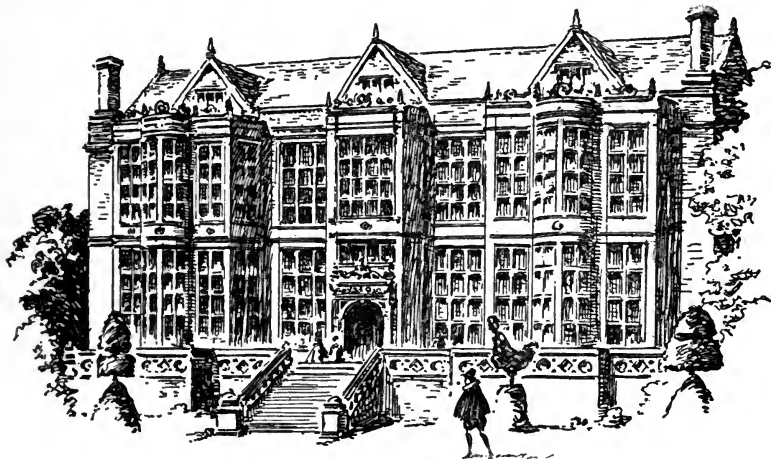


Sir Walter Raleigh.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

she could not bear any of her favourites to fall in love with anyone else, and, in a fit of temper, she had Raleigh thrown into prison.

Soon a treasure ship captured from the Portuguese, and laden with gold and silver from the New World, was brought into Dartmouth. The people of the town got



An Elizabethan Mansion.

aboard, and the sailors joined them in looting the treasure. Nobody could be found who could stop them, and Raleigh had to be fetched from prison to restore order.

"I assure you, Sir," wrote a man who saw him arrive on the scene, "his poor servants, to the number of a hundred and forty goodly men, and all the mariners came to him with such shouts and joy that I never saw a man more troubled to quiet them in my life."

So had it always been with Raleigh's men. They adored him, and his word was law. At his bidding they left the treasure alone, and as he had saved so much wealth for her, Elizabeth forgave him.

She did not, however, allow him to return at once to court, and Raleigh set out on a voyage to Guiana, in South America. He brought back with him new and beautiful wood for furniture making, strange plants and birds, and tales of great wealth, of mountains of gold and crystal. He also brought the news that the Spaniards were again



The Drawing Room of an Elizabethan Mansion.

preparing a fleet to conquer England, and he helped to make the plans which prevented them.

With Thomas, Lord Howard, the High Admiral, he sailed to Cadiz Bay, fought the Spaniards back into the harbour, sank and burnt their ships, and captured the town. In this action he was severely wounded, and had to be carried into the fight ashore on the shoulders of his men. A great part of the town was destroyed, and its forts broken down, and then the English sailed away to prepare for another battle.

Part of the Spanish fleet was on its way back from



America, and Howard, Raleigh, and Essex sailed to meet it. Rough weather drove their ships apart, and Raleigh, meeting the enemy, won a victory single-handed.

Then Elizabeth completely restored him to favour. He took up his old posts, and his old court life, and was



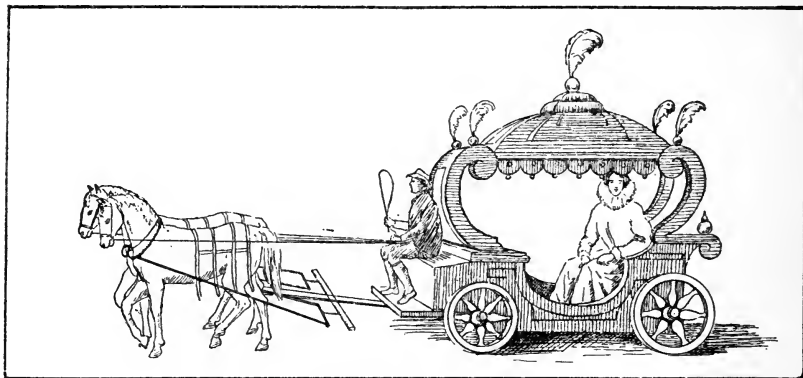
A "Progress" of Queen Elizabeth. From the engraving by G. Vertue.

*By courtesy of the British Museum.*

given new riches and honours. Life was very full and splendid for him in those days. He had a great deal of work to do, but he found time also to write poetry and to be the friend of poets.

It was he, some say, who began the famous nights at the Mermaid Tavern, where all the wits and great men of letters of the age collected. There was a friend of his Irish days, Edmund Spenser, "the singer of the Faerie Queene," the last poet of the age of chivalry; and young

Christopher Marlowe who wrote brilliant plays ; Michael Drayton, of the lovely lyrics ; Ben Jonson, " humming a song upon the old black settle," and great Shakespeare himself, the most wonderful writer of plays England has ever known.



State Coach in time of Elizabeth.

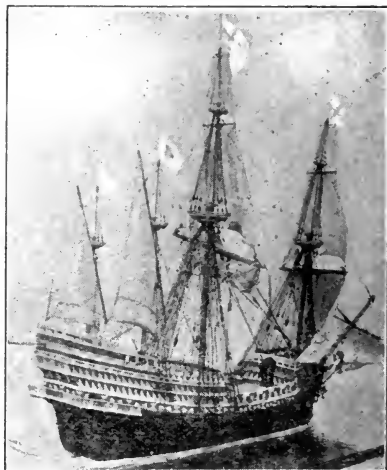
## PART II.

No wonder men envied Raleigh, the friend of queen and poets, the soldier, sailor, courtier, and writer, the dazzling leader of fashion, successful in all he did. In some, the envy turned to jealousy and hate, and they began to plot his downfall.

Elizabeth was now getting old, and she had never married. The Protestants hoped that James of Scotland, Mary Stuart's son, would succeed her. The Catholics wanted Arabella Stuart, a daughter of Darnley's brother. Plots and counter-plots were hatched ; and when at last it became clear that James would mount the throne, Raleigh's enemies poisoned the Scottish king's mind against him.

At last, after a long and splendid reign, during which England had been made mistress of the seas, and was honoured throughout the world, Elizabeth died in 1603. Raleigh rode north with the other great people of the court to meet James, but he soon found he was out of favour.

James, the sixth of Scotland, the first of England, was a curious mixture. He was a very well-read scholar, and many of his ideas of government were far in advance of his time. But he was suspicious and conceited, undecided and self-willed; and though he believed that very great respect was due to kings, he had no personal dignity, and did not look a king. For all his learning and his fine ideas, his reign was unsuccessful, and a



An Elizabethan Galleon or Man-of-War.

*From a model in the Science Museum.*

great Frenchman of the time described him truly as "the wisest fool in Christendom."

One of the first things James did was to take away Raleigh's posts at court and give them to other men. Raleigh quickly sank from his high station, until at last his enemies succeeded so well that he was put in prison in the Tower. Then came his trial for treason, a terrible mockery of justice, and he was condemned to death.

Raleigh wrote a brave and beautiful farewell letter to his wife, beginning,

"You shall now receive, my dear wife, my last words ;

in these my last lines my love I send you, that you may keep it when I am dead, and my counsel, that you may remember it when I am no more. I would not by my will present you with sorrows, dear Bess. Let them go into the grave with me, and be buried in the dust."



James I of England.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

But, at the last moment, James relented and changed the sentence to life-long imprisonment. Then both Raleigh and his wife showed their true courage. She went to live in prison with him, and he, though ruined, disgraced, and shut away, managed to fill his life with interests. He got leave to turn an old hen-house in the prison garden into a laboratory, and studied chemistry there ; he read, and planned new voyages of exploration, and he began to write a huge *History of the World*, which shows amazing learning and knowledge of men and life.

Raleigh never lost hope of regaining his freedom, and at last, after more than twelve years, James's favourite, the Duke of Buckingham, persuaded the king to let him leave the Tower on condition that he went to America and found gold.

Raleigh set sail in June, 1617, with thirteen ships, knowing that his life depended on the success of the voyage. From the first things went wrong with him. Storms scattered his ships, sickness fell on his sailors,

some of his captains deserted him and sailed home, and, worst of all, James played traitor behind his back. He sent word of the voyage to Raleigh's old enemies, the Spaniards, giving them the exact strength of Raleigh's ships, and they fortified the South American harbours against him.

What was left of the little fleet reached the river Orinoco in November, with Raleigh himself nearly dying of fever. His only son, Walter, landed with a small party, and went in search of the gold mines, but he fell among Spaniards and was killed. Raleigh's captain and pilot, who had said he knew where there was a mine, pushed on, but failed to find it, and he went back to the ships, told Raleigh, and shot himself in despair.

Then Raleigh knew he had failed, and that if he went back to England he would pay with his life. But he had promised to go back, and he was far too proud to break his promise.

He wrote to his wife a piteous letter of his failure, and of their son's death, saying, "My brains are broken, and 'tis torment to me to write, especially of misery," but to the end he was brave and thoughtful for others. He made arrangements for his sick sailors, his servants, and his captains, and tried to comfort his wife. "Comfort your heart, dear Bess, I shall sorrow for us both: and I have not long to sorrow, because I have not long to live."

As he expected, the Spanish accused him of being a pirate, and James accused him of "malicious breaking of the peace," and, to win the friendship of Spain, condemned him to be beheaded.

Raleigh's very last act proved his generous, reckless courage. On his way to the scaffold, walking erect, though he was shaking with fever, he saw a poor old man in the crowd who had no hat for his bald head. Sweeping

the cap from his own thick white curls, Raleigh tossed it to him, laughing.

"You need this, my friend, more than I," he said, and went firmly up the steps to his death.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Put down some of the things about Raleigh that help to explain why Elizabeth thought so much of him.

2. Tell one story of Raleigh to prove he was a great commander, and one to prove he was a man of honour, and one to show he was a good husband.

3. What happened to Raleigh when Queen Elizabeth died?

4. How did Raleigh show his interest in the New World?

### 5. CHARLES I (Reigned 1625-1649).

#### PART I. CHARLES I AND BUCKINGHAM.

After Raleigh's death James I still wanted to be friends with Spain, and suggested a marriage between his son Prince Charles and the Spanish princess, the Infanta Maria.

Prince Charles was a very different sort of man from his father; for he was tall and handsome, and had quiet kingly manners. Though he was not learned like James I, he was greatly interested in art and literature, and he was witty and entertaining in conversation. His worst faults were that he often did things without enough forethought; and that he was not always quite straightforward. Also, he was not a good judge of the true character of his courtiers; he listened to their flattery, because it confirmed his own belief that kings reigned by "divine right" and could do no wrong.

When the Spanish marriage was proposed, Charles journeyed to Madrid with his father's favourite, the Duke of Buckingham.

"The Duke was a very extraordinary person, and never any man in any age, nor in any country, rose in so short a time to so much greatness of honour, fame, and fortune upon no other recommendation than that of the beauty and gracefulness of his person."

So wrote another great courtier of the day, who had known the Duke of Buckingham as plain George Villiers, and seen him rise in seven short years so high in James's favour that he was made in turn a viscount, an earl, a marquis, and a duke. He also made a great fortune, and was given many important offices, chiefly because he was the handsomest and best dressed man in England.

Buckingham and the young Prince Charles must have made a very fine couple. They impressed the Spaniards by their looks and the richness of their clothes; but they failed to arrange the marriage with the Infanta Maria.

Two years later James I died, and Charles I became king (1625). Charles had decided to give up the idea of a Spanish alliance, and to seek the friendship of France instead. Within a few months he married Henrietta Maria, the daughter of the French king. Henrietta was



Charles I.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

a Roman Catholic, and Charles promised to allow all the Catholics in England to worship in their own way. But he soon found that he was not able to keep this promise.

For James I had offended so many people by his unwise rule that the country and Parliament were no longer so willing to do what the king wanted, as they had been in Tudor days. Charles's first Parliament was afraid that the new king, like his father, would try to take away its rights and powers. Parliament meant to guard against this, and difficulties began at once.

Many members of the Parliament were Puritans, or Protestants who aspired to special purity of life and worship. They thought the king's promise to give freedom to the English Catholics was bad and dangerous, and they would not pass the laws allowing it. These Puritans were men who dressed plainly and lived simply, and thought the king spent far too much money on clothes and court life.

Parliament would not even vote the king the money from taxes and customs duties which other kings had always had, and Charles was very angry about it.

So Charles I and his Parliament soon quarrelled, but



The Duke of Buckingham.

*National Portrait Gallery.*



at first Parliament did not altogether blame the king. They thought that most of the trouble was due to the handsome Duke of Buckingham, who was still the favourite at court and Charles's chief adviser. Buckingham spent money carelessly, and treated lightly many matters which Parliament believed should be treated very seriously. They decided to impeach\* the Duke ; but, as soon as Charles knew this, he dissolved Parliament, so that they could not pass a sentence against his favourite.

This left Charles in a very difficult position, for he soon found that he could not get on without the revenue (money collected in duties and taxes), and this he could get only through Parliament. Then Buckingham suggested getting money, as Elizabeth had done, by plundering Spain. He himself led a fleet to capture Spanish treasure ships, but he entirely failed. So Charles was forced to assemble Parliament again. But again they quarrelled, for the first thing that Parliament asked was that Buckingham should be sent away from court, because they thought him an enemy " of Church and State."

Charles would not give in. Rather than send Buckingham away, he again dismissed Parliament. He could not see that the gay, good-looking duke was not really his friend, but his worst enemy because of all the foolish advice he gave, and all the extravagant things he did.

Meanwhile Charles I drifted into a war with France, because he had not been able to keep his promise to the French king to free the English Catholics. Buckingham was sent to capture the harbour of La Rochelle ; but though he proved very brave himself, he was a bad leader, and again he completely failed.

Charles I, too, had failed in England, where he had

\* An impeachment is a trial for treason in which the Commons prosecute and the Lords act as judges.

been trying to force people to lend him money. As he could not get it, he had to call his third Parliament. This time, as soon as it met, Parliament drew up a paper called the *Petition of Right* (1628). In this petition, Parliament asked the king to promise not to billet his soldiers in private houses, nor to raise taxes without the consent of Parliament, nor to imprison people except on a regular charge. Charles agreed, and signed the *Petition of Right*. Even then the struggle was not over, for Parliament still wanted the Duke of Buckingham sent away, and Charles still refused to dismiss him.

Then Parliament tried to force the king by saying that, in signing the *Petition of Right*, he had promised not to collect certain customs duties without their consent until Buckingham had left the court. Once again Charles closed Parliament rather than send the duke away.

At this moment a person who seemed of no particular importance played a very important part in the destinies of Charles I and his people. A disappointed and aggrieved army officer named John Felton murdered the great Duke of Buckingham at Portsmouth in August, 1628. At once a great change came over affairs in England. Many people had opposed the king because they hated the duke, but now that he was dead, and for other reasons, they went over to the king's side. One of them was Thomas Wentworth, the cleverest of the Parliamentary leaders.

## PART II. CHARLES I AND WENTWORTH.

Thomas Wentworth, later Earl of Strafford, was a man of very strong character. He was steady and determined, which was just what was needed to balance Charles's lack of thought and moments of weakness. He

could sweep away Charles's doubts, and he had a cold clear brain which was much better for governing than Charles's more artistic mind. With Wentworth as his chief minister, Charles was able to rule for eleven years without calling a Parliament at all.

The chief difficulty of those eleven years (1629-1640) was how to fill the king's treasury. Wentworth invented taxes, and collected tonnage and poundage (customs duties) in the king's name, in spite of what Parliament had said, and he also revived many fines. Men who had a certain amount of land had to become knights, and pay knights' duties, or they were fined; landowners who had rightly or wrongly put fences round any commons or royal forest were fined;

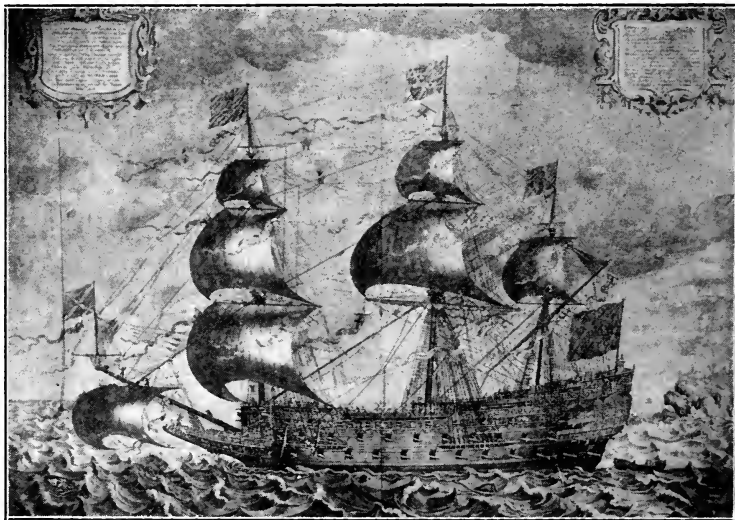
others were fined for building houses in certain parts of London, or for pulling down houses on their country estates. This made all sorts of people angry with the king. Country gentlemen, and rich townsmen, traders, and shopkeepers, all began to grumble and say that Charles was interfering with their private lives or their business.

Then Wentworth was made Lord Deputy of Ireland, and there he again raised money for Charles. Much of his work in that country, however, was for Ireland's benefit. He improved the army, fostered the linen trade,



Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

and did what he could to promote education. He made the entries to ports and harbours safe for shipping. He tried to make peace between those who were opposed on religious grounds. But the Irish did not understand Wentworth or like him, and, as he was



The "Sovereign of the Seas," built by Charles I in 1637 with part of the tax called Ship Money that he levied unlawfully.

*From a contemporary engraving in the Science Museum.*

Charles's servant, Charles, too, became unpopular with them.

At the same time Charles was growing more and more unpopular in England and Scotland, where another of his chief ministers, Archbishop Laud, was making people angry by insisting that all should worship according to the forms of the Church of England.

At last, in Scotland, rebellion broke out. Wentworth advised Charles to blockade the border, but Charles,

though he had not nearly enough money, decided to attack. England had not fought for eleven years, and Charles's troops were poorly disciplined and drilled, and underpaid, too, so that he was soon forced to make a treaty with the Scots at Berwick. Then Wentworth, who had hastily crossed from Ireland, advised Charles to call a Parliament, for he thought that in this hour of need, with an enemy inside their borders, Parliament would surely support the king.

But Parliament did nothing of the kind. They brought forward all the grievances of the past eleven years; and Pym, a leader in the House of Commons, declared that Charles would not get a penny for his Scottish war, or anything else, until he agreed to many reforms.

Charles angrily dissolved Parliament, but fell into one of his moods of doubt and weakness. He thought he would get help from some foreign power, but before he had really made up his mind, two important things happened. Wentworth was taken ill, and the Scots crossed the Tweed, defeated Charles's men, and passed over the Tyne into Durham and Yorkshire.

With his troops scattered and Wentworth ill, King Charles made a treaty with the Scots at Ripon, agreeing to pay them a big sum of money to make peace. He then



Archbishop Laud.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

called a great council of his lords, and asked them to advise him how to get the money. They told him the only way was to call another Parliament, and in despair Charles agreed. So, on November 3rd, 1640, the famous Long Parliament met.

### PART III. THE GREAT CIVIL WAR (1642-1649).

The Long Parliament was filled with determined men, like Pym, who meant to cut down the king's power and strengthen their own. The first law they passed was one providing that Parliament must meet at least every three years, whether the king called it or not. This was to prevent Charles from ruling again without a Parliament, as he had done for the last eleven years (1629-1640). Then Parliament imprisoned in the Tower both Wentworth and Laud, who had helped the king to rule during that period.

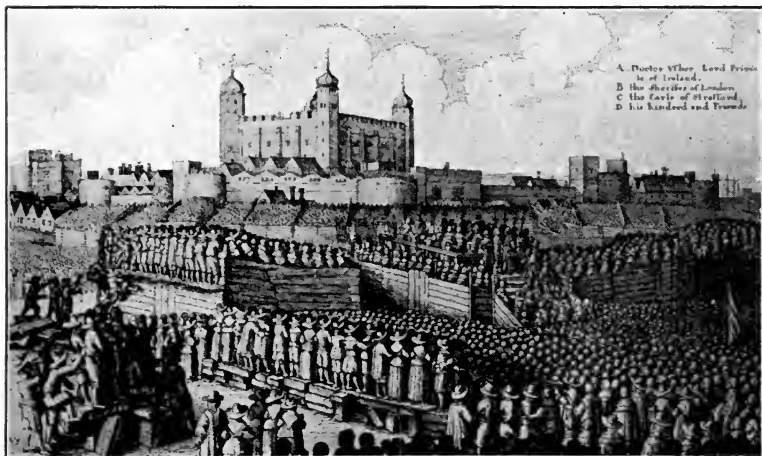
The people now hated Wentworth as much as they had ever hated the Duke of Buckingham. When Parliament sent his death warrant to Whitehall for Charles to sign, a great mob raged round the palace, shouting and struggling, and crying out for Wentworth's head.

Charles had given his solemn promise to protect Wentworth, but inside the palace Queen Henrietta lay ill, and Charles thought that the mad crowd outside might cause her death. For a long time he sat in doubt, with the order for Wentworth's execution spread before him, listening to the howls of the mob, and thinking of his queen. Then he did the thing which, later on, helped towards his own ruin; he signed away the life of his most faithful servant and the strongest man in his kingdom.

So Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, died on Tower Hill in 1641, and Charles, through his own

fault, was left to face Parliament alone. Four years later Archbishop Laud, too, was beheaded.

Parliament at once took away all the powers Charles had claimed during the previous eleven years. They drew up a protest called the "Grand Remonstrance," setting forth all the unlawful acts of the king since the beginning of his reign.

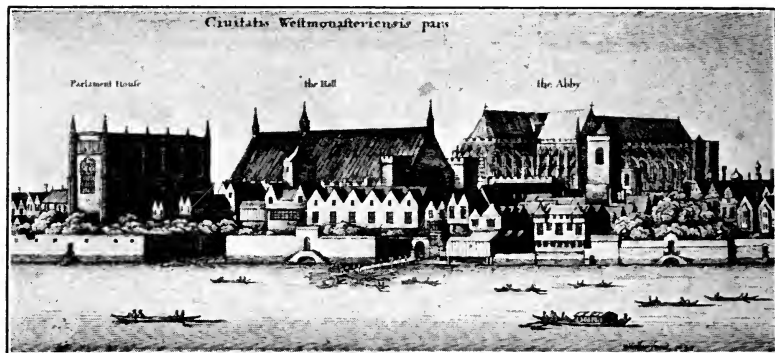


The Execution of Strafford. From an old engraving in the *British Museum*.

Charles's reply was quiet and dignified, and all might have gone well for him ; but at the last moment he ruined everything by acting on a series of foolish impulses. The worst of these was when he unlawfully tried to arrest five members of Parliament in the House of Commons itself. After this Parliament was so angry that matters moved quickly towards war.

The quarrel was not only whether the king or the Parliament should have the real power in ruling the land, but it was also about religion. For the leaders of Parlia-

ment, being Puritans, wanted very much plainer and simpler forms of worship than were already established, while the king desired the Church of England to remain as it had been in Queen Elizabeth's time, and was also willing to give freedom of worship to Roman Catholics.



Westminster in the time of Charles I.

The steps leading from the House of Parliament to the river were the means by which the five members escaped. From an engraving by W. Hollar.

*By courtesy of the British Museum.*

On the whole the north and west of England took the king's side, while the east and south agreed with Parliament. A great many of the nobles and most of the gentry and peasantry sided with the king and the Church, while almost all the middle class and the traders were in sympathy with Parliament. The Parliament was fighting to curb the king's power, while the king was fighting to get the upper hand of Parliament.

When the fighting began, the Royalists were at first the more successful, and if Charles had marched on London in the early days of the war, he might have won. But he had no experience as a general and often made mistakes, while Parliament gathered stronger and stronger forces. Charles made Oxford his headquarters, and from



there he tried to make peace ; but fighting went on all over England.

There was a great difference between the two armies. Charles's followers, the *Cavaliers*, wore their hair in long curls, and their clothes were of gay colours and rich

stuffs. They had feathers in their hats, lace ruffles at their wrists, and often gold or jewels on their sword hilts. They were brave and reckless, good riders and good swordsmen, but they were not thoroughly disciplined, or used to fighting in big numbers.

The Puritan soldiers, on the other hand, often wore their hair cropped so close that they got the nickname of *Roundheads*. Their clothes were very plain and sober-looking, made in dark

Cavalier, time of the Civil War.

Roundhead, time of the Civil War.

useful cloths. In general they could not ride or fence quite so well as the Cavaliers, but they became far better disciplined and trained to fight and obey orders all together.

Up and down the country the struggle raged, and burning and pillaging went on as well as fighting. But in the midst of all this disorder Charles kept his quiet dignity. His meals were plain, of meat and fruit, " seldom above three dishes at most," but they were served with proper ceremony, and his " deportment continued very majestic." He went very regularly to prayers, whether he was at his Oxford court, or with his troops in the field. Later, he called a small Parliament at Oxford to show the

country that he was willing to try to rule according to the laws and customs of the land.

But, though he had many good and amiable qualities, Charles I had not the strength of character, nor the power



Map showing Chief Battles and Sieges in the Civil War.

of decision, needed in a leader. If he had saved Wentworth from death, it is likely that the whole war would have gone differently, for Wentworth was a man of great firmness of purpose and force of character. But Wentworth was dead, and there was no one among the king's followers to take his place. Prince Rupert, the king's nephew, was a brave and brilliant cavalry officer, but he was hot-tempered and quarrelsome. Lucius Cary, the young Lord

Falkland, was the most perfect gentleman of his time, but he loved peace too well to be a success as a soldier, and in 1643, despairing of peace, he sought death, and found it, in the first battle of Newbury. This was a long-fought battle which the Parliament won, and after it things went very badly for Charles.

Though he won some small victories himself, his

generals were defeated again and again, until the great defeat of Prince Rupert in Yorkshire, at *Marston Moor* (1644). Then Charles again tried to make peace. Some of the Parliamentary leaders were willing to come to an



Oliver Cromwell.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

agreement, for though they had fought against him for an ideal of freedom, they did not wish the king any personal harm. But other Parliamentary leaders were determined not to stop fighting until they had complete control of the country. Though they never spoke of executing the king, they did not mean him to have any real power after the war, and would not consider his terms for peace.

#### PART IV.—THE EXECUTION OF CHARLES I.

The foremost man of the time was Oliver Cromwell, who, all through the war, had shown himself to be a military genius and a born leader. It was Cromwell who trained the famous troop of cavalry called the Ironsides, and it was mainly through their dash and valour that the Parliament won the battle of *Naseby* (1645), in Northamptonshire, the fiercest battle of the war. Charles had only 7,500 men, his enemy numbered 14,000, and though the Royalists fought desperately they were utterly defeated, and Charles fled north.

Then the leaders of Parliament offered the king their

terms. They said Charles must give up the Church of England and make laws against the Roman Catholics, and also that he must give complete power over the army and fleet to Parliament, and allow them to choose his ministers for twenty years. Charles refused. He saw that his enemies were beginning to quarrel among themselves, and he hoped that they might become divided enough for him to win back his power.

Cromwell, however, the leader of the army, saw what Charles hoped, and did not at all mean to allow it. He had Charles taken prisoner and sent to Hampton Court. Then, when he had suppressed the disorder and confusion beginning to arise among his own soldiers, Cromwell and his army marched on London, where he forced eleven leading members of Parliament, who wanted moderate terms for Charles, to fly from the city. He then offered the king his terms of peace; but again Charles rejected them, hoping that he might yet win back his throne without accepting terms at all.

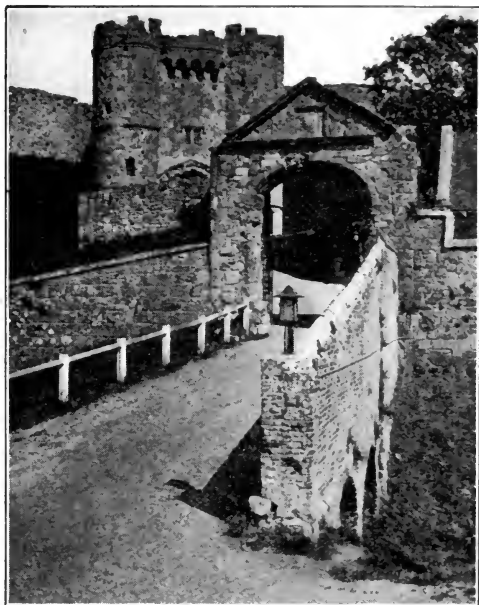
One night in November, 1647, Charles escaped from Hampton Court, and with many adventures made his way to Carisbrooke Castle in the Isle of Wight. From there he tried to make plans to get back his crown. Some of the Welsh and some of the Scottish clans rose in his favour, while the scattered Royalists began to collect again in Kent and Essex, and the second civil war began.

Cromwell put down the rising in Wales, and then, marching north, he crushed the Scots, who had got as far as Lancashire, hoping to join the Welsh. At the same time Fairfax, another distinguished general, drove the Royalists out of Maidstone in Kent, and captured their last stronghold of Colchester.

Charles hoped to escape abroad, but he was taken prisoner and sent to Hurst Castle in Hampshire. Then

some of the members of Parliament wanted him to be tried as a traitor.

Even many among his enemies saw that they had no right to try the king, but those who said so were turned out of the House of Commons by Colonel Pride



Carisbrooke Castle.

*H.M. Office of Works, by permission of the Controller, H.M. Stationery Office.*

and his musketeers. This act was called "Pride's Purge," and it left the Parliament completely under the thumb of the army leaders, who wanted to try the king. So Charles I was brought to London, and his trial began in January, 1649.

Before the specially appointed High Court of Justice began to try him, his enemies had decided to condemn

the king, and had silenced anyone in their own ranks who took his part. Only the force of arms made them able to pass sentence against the king on January 27th, 1649. It was a sentence of death.

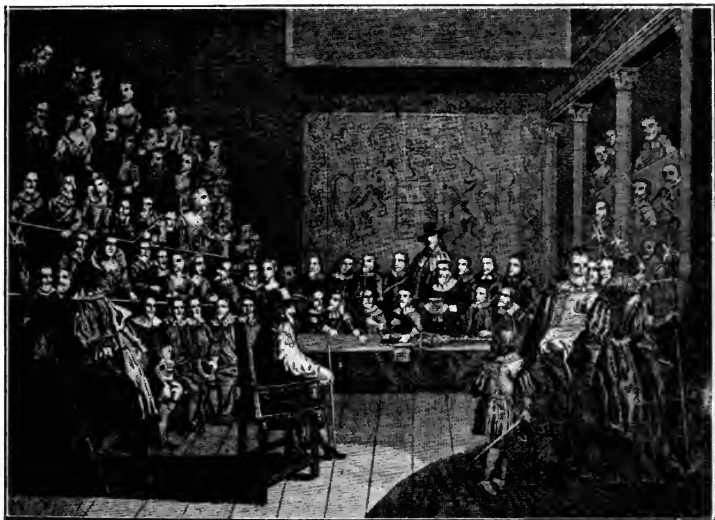


Interior of Westminster Hall, where Charles I was tried.

*By courtesy of the British Museum.*

On the last day but one of January, 1649, Charles I, King of Great Britain and Ireland, was beheaded at Whitehall, and, except for the small party that had judged him, all England mourned. For though he had made great mistakes during his reign, many men loved Charles. Many more thought it a sad and dreadful

thing that a king should be put to death by his own subjects, whatever unlawful acts he might have committed. And even Charles's bitterest enemies were moved to pity and admiration by the unshaken courage and the



The Trial of Charles I in Westminster Hall. From a contemporary print.

*By courtesy of the British Museum.*

majestic dignity with which he faced death, and to which an eminent poet of the time, named Andrew Marvell, paid the following tribute :

“ He nothing common did or mean  
 Upon that memorable scene,  
 But with his keener eye  
 The axe's edge did try ;

Nor call'd the gods, with vulgar spite,  
 To vindicate his helpless right ;  
 But bow'd his comely head  
 Down, as upon a bed.”

## QUESTIONS.

1. Make a list of Charles I's good qualities.
2. Whom did Charles I marry? What difficulties did his marriage make for him?
3. How did Charles get money during the eleven years he reigned without a Parliament?
4. Tell what you know of (a) Thomas Wentworth, Earl of Strafford, and (b) Archbishop Laud.
5. Say what you can of (a) the Puritans, and (b) the Civil War.
6. Write about the trial and execution of King Charles I.

## 6. JOHN MILTON and OLIVER CROMWELL.

(The Rule of the Puritans, 1649-1660.)

## PART I. MILTON'S EARLY LIFE.

When James I was still on the throne of England, and Charles was a little prince of eight, *John Milton* was born at a house in Bread Street, off the famous London thoroughfare known as Cheapside. His father was a scrivener, or professional writer. In those days there were a great many people who had never learnt to write; and if they wanted important documents drawn up, they employed a scrivener to write them in proper form.

The elder Milton thrived in his business, in which he was very skilled, and made a fair fortune, so the future poet grew up in comfortable and happy home circumstances.

The family lived at the sign of the Spread Eagle. Nowadays only inns have their special signs in England, but when Milton was a little boy a sign hung outside every shop. His father had chosen the Spread Eagle, because that was the Miltons' family crest, and at the doors of the other shops in the street hung gay boards with bulls and lions and dragons painted on them, or



patterns, or trees. A green bush was the sign of a wine shop ; a striped pole with a bunch of ribbons was the recognized " barber's pole " ; a dog licking a pot indicated an ironmonger's and so on.

Little John Milton must have seen these shop signs many times as he walked to school at St. Paul's, the school founded by Dean Colet in the days of Henry VIII. There Milton was as happy as he was at home, for he was fond of learning. Even " when he was very young, he studied very hard, and sat up very late with his books, commonly till twelve or one o'clock."

When he was sixteen, Milton went to Christ's College, Cambridge, where he became a fine Latin scholar. He wrote essays and verses in Latin, and he also began to think of writing English poetry. His father had retired from business, and taken a house in a little village called Horton, in a lovely part of Buckinghamshire, and there Milton went to live when he left Cambridge.

It was a perfect place for writing poetry. The River Colne wandered past the house ; rich meadows and wooded hills were on either side of the little stream, and " the regal towers " of Windsor Castle showed in the distance over the trees of its great deer-filled park. Every day Milton could be met roaming through the pastures and thickets, a slight young man of medium height, with light-brown hair, grey eyes, and an oval face, so fair of complexion that at Cambridge he had been nicknamed " the Lady."

In his long walks, Milton was thinking of the two beautiful poems he was writing, *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*, and in the evenings he worked and read, or made music with his family. For he had a " delicate tunable voice," and his father, who was an able musician, had taught him to sing and to play the organ.

These were the happiest days of Milton's life, full of peace and the warm love of his family. But already in England the troubled times had begun which were to end in the civil wars, shattering everybody's peace.

Charles I had come to the throne, quarrelled with his Parliaments and dismissed them. The Duke of Buckingham had been murdered when Milton was still



Puritan man and woman.

at Cambridge. And while he was walking in the Horton woods, writing *L'Allegro* and *Il Penseroso*, Charles was ruling with the help of Wentworth, and angering the country by his unlawful fines and taxes.

One section of the people, the Puritans, were even more angered by the gay, frivolous life of the court, and the careless self-indulgence of many of the Cavaliers (the king's followers), than they were by the levying of unlawful taxes. The Puritans believed that dancing and feasting and play-acting were evil pastimes, and one of them, named William Prynne, wrote a violent book

against actors and acting. Many people shared Prynne's views, but the Cavaliers ridiculed them, and resorted more than ever to the theatres. It became the fashion to have masques, which were outdoor plays with music and dancing, at all the big Cavalier parties, and in 1634 Milton wrote a masque called *Comus* for a party of the Earl of Bridgewater's at Ludlow Castle.



Lady and Gentleman in the time of Charles I.

This was the last and most famous of the masques, and it is strange that it should have been written by a man who later became a champion of the Puritans.

For during the three years after he wrote *Comus*, Milton saw the quarrel between Charles I and his people growing more and more bitter. Prynne, who had written another book, and two other Puritans, were severely punished for publishing their views. John Hampden, a Puritan squire who lived in Buckinghamshire not far from Milton, was tried for refusing to pay a tax called ship-money, and judgment was given against him ;

yet it was held by many that the king had no right to levy this tax on inland counties.

Discontent and unrest prevailed throughout the country, and beyond the border Scotland was preparing for war. But Charles did not at all realize the ill effects of his unwise government. He still thought that, being a king, he was the chosen servant of God and could do no wrong, and he believed that all who did not agree with him must be either stupid or wicked. He put his own judgment above the wishes of his people, and even above the law ; the great problem for Charles, as a sovereign, was how to get enough money to rule in his own way, without having to ask anyone's consent to what he did.

It was at this time that Milton wrote *Lycidas*, one of his finest poems. It alludes to the strife between opposing parties in Church and State.

The old Cavalier life, of light laughter and idle extravagance grouped around a splendid, pleasure-loving court, was passing away ; and the Puritans, who called laughter a mockery and pleasure a sin, were growing in numbers.

Milton himself was torn between the two. On the Cavalier side were masque and revel and song, music and dancing, fine clothes, and a care-free way of living ; and, in spite of himself, Milton loved these things. On the Puritan side were serious purpose and discipline, plain living and stern virtue, things less gay and glittering, but of greater worth.

It was these last, which, before a year had passed, Milton chose, taking the side of the Puritans and Parliament against the Cavaliers.

But it was some time before Milton did any active service for the Parliamentary cause. In 1638 he went abroad for a year, journeying to Italy to see the Italian

poets of the day, for he loved Italian as well as Latin poetry. When he got back to England, he took a little house just beyond the walls of London, "a pretty garden-house, in Aldersgate." There he kept a kind of school. At the beginning he taught only his own two nephews, but other pupils soon collected, for he was a fine scholar and taught well.

In this house, the ordered routine of life, with its long hours of study, was not changed by the outbreak of the first *Civil War* (1642). Milton, though he believed in the justice of the Parliament's cause, never fought in the wars. He did not at first feel any hatred for the king's party. In 1643—while Charles was trying to make peace at Oxford—he married Mary Powell, the daughter of an Oxfordshire cavalier.



Citizen and wife in the time of Charles I.

But the marriage was not a success. Mary had no interest in Milton's studies, and, after the many parties and easy manners in her country home, she found Milton's way of living cramped and dull. Milton, on the other hand, thought it light and foolish of his wife to wish for parties and pretty gowns. They could not understand each other, and were often unhappy together.

For a time Mary went back to her own home. But when the Royalists were defeated, and Oxford fell into the hands of the Parliamentary party, while the king fled north, Mary and all her family returned to London and lived with Milton for protection.

Milton had, for the time being, given up writing

poetry, and was writing papers about education and religion. He wanted the men of England to have much better education, to be able to speak and print their opinions, to be equal in matters of law, and to reform the Church according to Puritan ideals.

During the second civil war, his views became much more violent. He supported the party that tried and executed the king. He sympathized with the Council, set up after Charles's death in the hope of making England a Republic, because he thought it would bring justice and equality.

But there was one man in England much stronger than all the rest—the man who had made the army, and forced the Parliament into obeying his orders. This man was Oliver Cromwell. Because of his stern character and his great power of leadership, it was natural that Cromwell should step into the king's place as head of the State.

Cromwell had his Council, but he kept for himself more power than Charles I had ever held, and he needed secretaries to help him. Milton had written a great deal to help the new government; he knew several languages, and his views about most things agreed with those of Cromwell. Therefore, in March, 1649, two months after Charles's death, he was made Latin Secretary to the Council of State.

## PART II. MILTON AS SECRETARY TO THE COUNCIL OF STATE.

Latin was used much more in those days than it is to-day. Many books and papers, including some of Milton's own, and many State letters and records were written in it.

Milton's post was very interesting, as he had to

translate letters from, and write letters to, the rulers of other countries. Cromwell's way of dealing with other countries was as strong as his rule at home, and he made England greatly respected among the nations of Europe.



John Milton.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

Within a year of Charles I's death, Cromwell had forced the Irish to obey his rule, and in 1651 he crushed the Scots, who had crowned, as Charles II, the eldest son of the late king, and had advanced into England as far as Worcester. Charles II was beaten at the battle of Worcester, and had to fly for his life. For days he was hunted from hiding-place to hiding-place by Cromwell's troopers before he escaped abroad. Then Cromwell's admiral, Blake,

swept the Royalist ships from the seas, and Cromwell turned his attention to the Continent.

The Dutch were at that time the great rivals of the English in trade and at sea. They were fine sailors and carried goods for other countries all over the world. Cromwell passed the Navigation Act, forbidding foreign ships to carry English goods into English or colonial ports, because he wanted English ships to do this. Quarrels at once began and war broke out. Blake fought and won several sea-fights against the Dutch admiral, Van Tromp, and then a peace treaty was signed by which England gained many advantages.

But while England triumphed, a great sorrow had

fallen upon Milton. For a long time his sight had been getting very bad, and the doctors had told him that if he went on reading and writing it would quickly grow even worse. But he would not give up his studies or his secretary's post. While at sea Blake was winning his victories over the Dutch, in London Milton went quite blind.



The Seal of the Commonwealth.

He now had to have a secretary of his own to write things down for him. Only through the kindness and patience of his friends and daughters could he hear his beloved books read. As he had strict Puritan ideas about women and believed that

"Nothing lovelier can be found

In woman, than to study household good," he had never sent his daughters to school. But in time he managed to teach Deborah, the youngest, to read aloud to him in Latin, Italian, French, or Greek, though she could not understand a word of what she was saying! It must have been very dull for her, and it can hardly be surprising that her elder sisters refused to do it, and would read only in English, though even then their father's books were too difficult for them to follow very clearly.

After Charles I's death, England had no king for eleven years, and this period (1649-1660) is known as the *Commonwealth*. But shortly after the Dutch War, Cromwell became "Protector," and he used his power in a very high-handed way. Members of Parliament who did not agree with his methods were at once sent away from the House of Commons (there had been no House of Lords since Charles I's death), and Cromwell refused to allow Parliament to control the army or the



fleet. It was for trying to get such power that Charles I had been condemned, and many people grew discontented and bitter when they saw Cromwell getting so great. Several plots were set on foot to murder him.

In 1655 he divided the country into eleven districts, with a major-general over each to keep order. The rule of these men was very unpopular, for they kept army-law, and used soldiers to force the people to obey. So the people began to regret the old days of the Stuart kings.

Milton took no part in all these happenings. When he was first made Latin secretary, he had taken a new house in Westminster to be near his office in Whitehall, and there he lived very quietly. Hardly anyone went to his home, and he did not know many of the men who held important positions under Cromwell. Nobody asked his opinion, though he still wrote, or rather dictated, so many important State papers.

But he knew that quarrels had begun again all over the country, and that the Royalists were plotting to restore Charles II as king. At the height of their plotting, and just when he was most famous in Europe, Cromwell died (September, 1658). His son Richard was at once made Protector, but he was not a strong man like his father. He could not manage the many quarrelling parties in England, and he retired into private life, leaving a small number of Republicans, called the Rump Parliament, in power. Then the Rump quarrelled with the army, and Monk, the leader of the army, very cleverly brought about the restoration of Charles II, without any of the fighting which the Royalists had thought would be necessary.

Monk was able to do this chiefly because the nation had grown tired of the strictness of the Puritans, and

hated the way soldiers had kept order and bullied everybody during Cromwell's last years. The people wanted a quiet, settled government instead of the rule of a small body supported by the army. They thought that restoring the King and the old type of Parliament would give them this. So they greeted Charles II, in 1660, with great rejoicing.

### PART III. MILTON'S LIFE IN CHARLES II'S REIGN.

But Charles II's restoration was not a matter for joy to the men who had helped his father's enemies. Thirteen of those who had condemned the king to death were executed. Milton, who had written his approval of their act, lost his office as Latin Secretary and also much of his money, though he was spared from punishment because of his blindness.

Other misfortunes were still to befall him in the reign of the new king.

Charles II was not a good man, though he was much cleverer than his father. He allowed his courtiers to live bad lives and to mock at serious and holy things. Seeing their example, the country largely broke away from the overstrict manners of Cromwell's day, and gave itself up to pleasure-seeking and worldly gain. The Puritans had been gloomy and stern, but they had a high standard of conduct and honour. These were laughed at and jeered at after the Restoration. Wealth and pleasure were the things that counted, and men might lie and cheat and flatter in order to get them so long as they were not too often found out.

All this saddened Milton very much, but it was now, when he was blind and poor and in disgrace, when all the things that he had helped to fight for for twenty

years had crumbled away, that he proved himself a great man. For, instead of giving up in despair, he began a long and splendid poem, full of fire and beauty, which he called *Paradise Lost*.



Triumphal entry of Charles II into London at the Restoration. From an old engraving.

Rischgitz.

While he was writing it, a terrible thing happened in England—the *Great Plague*. The Plague was a horrible sickness from which very many thousands of people died. It raged in London all through the summer and autumn of 1665, and everyone who could left the stricken city. Milton, through the kindness of friends, was taken to a cottage at Chalfont St. Giles in Buckinghamshire, and

so he finished *Paradise Lost* in the county where he had spent his happiest days and written his earliest poems.

When the Plague broke out, England was again at war with the Dutch, and during it the Dutch gained the mastery of the seas. Then, just as the sickness was over and Milton, among others, had returned to the city, London was swept by another tragedy. This was the *Great Fire* (1666).

A great many houses in London at that time were built of wood, and overhung the narrow streets so that the upper floors almost touched each other. Across these narrow gaps, the flames leapt from house to house and street to street, crackling and hissing on a high wind which carried sparks and burning brands farther and farther before it, until two-thirds of the city was ablaze. There were no fire-engines then to help, and people soon saw it was quite useless to fling buckets of water at the mighty spreading furnace, and began instead to try to save their goods. All the narrow ways were filled with shouting men and straining horses, and women ran with bundles in their arms and children clinging to their skirts, while for three nights and three days the fire roared.

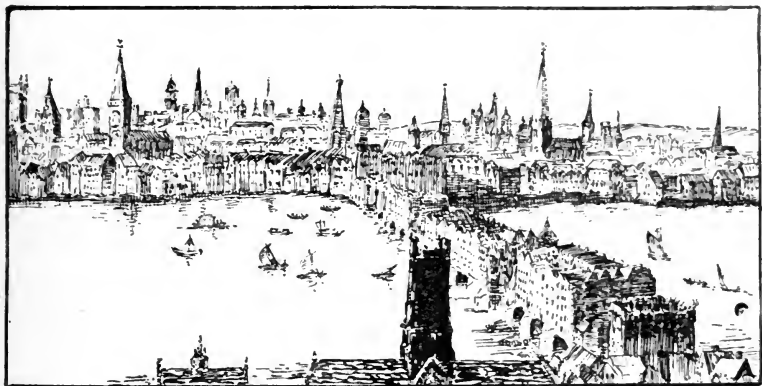
Charles II showed much of his father's dignity at this time, walking quietly among the ruins, to encourage



Charles II.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

all efforts to stop the fire from spreading. Houses were hastily pulled down by his order, in the hope of clearing spaces too large for the flames to leap across ; soldiers were sent to help the people, and to drag away the things which would most easily burn ; but the fire raged on until the wind dropped, and finally it burnt itself out.



London before the Great Fire (1666).  
Most of the churches seen in the picture were destroyed in the Fire.

When at last the city was built up again, the new houses were better and the new streets wider and cleaner, but for a time all was confusion. In three days two hundred thousand people had lost their homes. Shops, churches, markets, warehouses, and workshops lay in smoking ruins. To crown all, the Dutch fleet seized the occasion to sail right up the Thames, destroying three English men-of-war and carrying off a fourth.

Charles II made peace with the Dutch and tried to restore order, though he would not stop spending money on his pleasures and his courtiers, even when his country so badly needed it.

Perhaps the man least moved in all London by this great disaster was Milton. Though his house in Bread Street was burnt to the ground, and many of his goods lost, he continued to write poetry, shut away in blind loneliness.



The Fire of London. From an engraving by W. Hollar.

By courtesy of the British Museum.

He produced two more great poems, *Paradise Regained*, and *Samson Agonistes*, and then in November, 1674, he died, and was buried near his father in St. Giles's, Cripplegate.

Few people realized while he lived the beauty of his poetry.

"Milton? Who is Milton?" asked one.

"Oh, an old blind man who writes Latin." But to-day the answer would be,

"One of England's greatest poets."

#### QUESTIONS.

1. What was a scrivener?
2. What did Cheapside look like when Milton was a boy?
3. Think of Milton's tastes, and say whether you think it was easy or not for him to make up his mind which side to take, when the Civil War broke out.

4. What had Milton to do with Oliver Cromwell?
5. Tell how Milton spent the last years of his life.
6. Tell the story of the Great Plague, or of the Dutch invasion, or of the Great Fire in Charles II's reign.

## 7. JOHN CHURCHILL, DUKE OF MARLBOROUGH (1650-1722).

(The reigns of Charles II, James II, William III and Mary II, Anne, and George I).

### PART I. DURING CHARLES II'S REIGN.

John Churchill's father was a loyal Cavalier who had fought for Charles I, and had been faithful to Charles II all the time he was in exile in France while Cromwell governed England. So when Charles II came back to England (1660), Mr. Churchill was well received at court. He was made Sir Winston Churchill, and his children, John and Arabella, were given places as page and maid-of-honour to the king's brother and his wife, the Duke and Duchess of York.

John at this time was only eleven. He had had little education, for during the Commonwealth his father had been very poor. But he was a very quick, intelligent boy, and took a special interest in anything to do with soldiers and the management of the army. His master, the Duke of York, was a Commander of the Guards, and one day when he was directing the exercises of two foot regiments, he noticed how eagerly his page followed every order and movement.

"What profession would you choose if any could be granted you?" asked the Duke of York, lightly. He expected the answer to be, "A soldier"; but he did not expect the boy to fall on his knees, and beg for "a pair of colours" in one of the fine regiments.

Amused at finding his page so much in earnest, the Duke of York promised one day he should be given a commission, and when John was just sixteen, the promise was fulfilled.

So it happened that in 1666, the year of the Great Fire, John Churchill joined his regiment and sailed away to Tangier, opposite Gibraltar. Tangier then belonged to England, and was being besieged by the Moors, so young Churchill saw active service at once, and in the fights against the Moors he did all he could to prove his bravery and keenness.

Within the year, however, he was called back to England to attend the Duke of York at court. Churchill would rather have gone on fighting, but obeyed orders. All his life he had perfect control of himself, and no one ever knew by his bearing or manners when he was put out or disappointed.

He quickly became a favourite among the courtiers, for he was tall and handsome, could dance well, and had perfect manners. These were things which counted highly in Charles II's court, where very few thought of anything but pleasure, and good looks and fine manners were of more value than any virtues. Nearly six years passed, and then at last Churchill was sent abroad again, to help Louis XIV of France to fight against the Dutch.

*Louis XIV* was a very ambitious king. He wanted to rule all western Europe, and there was no other great king to oppose him. Spain was then by far the biggest kingdom, but her king was weak and sickly. *Louis XIV* planned to capture the Spanish Netherlands for himself, and later to put his grandson on the Spanish throne.

Had Cromwell still been ruling England, he would never have allowed this, for it was a great danger to the peace of Europe, and therefore to England. But



Charles II cared little for Europe so long as he had money for clothes and jewels and feasting, and he readily agreed to help Louis XIV in return for a sum of gold which Louis promised to pay him every year.

Churchill was very glad that his regiment was among the troops chosen to send to the war. He did not mind whether the cause he fought for was just or unjust, so long as it gave him a chance to win fame and promotion. This he very soon did. He fought under the command of a great French general, who quickly singled him out as a daring and clever officer. In one battle, when an important outpost was lost, the general cried,



Louis XIV of France.

"I will wager a supper and a dozen of claret that my handsome Englishman recovers the post with half the number of men that the colonel had who lost it."

He won his wager, for, after a short fierce struggle, Churchill drove out the enemy and held the post.

Shortly after, Churchill showed such very great courage in capturing a strong and difficult position from the Dutch that he was publicly thanked by Louis XIV in front of the whole army.

But the Dutch, too, had a young and gallant leader, named William, great-grandson of William the Silent. William, the *ruler of Holland*, had "the kind of courage that shines most brightly in moments when everything seems lost." Even when it looked as though Louis XIV's army was completely victorious, and Louis offered him terms of peace which many of his people wanted him to

accept, William did not give up hope. Rather than accept Louis's terms, he ordered that the dykes which kept back the sea from the lowlands of Holland should be opened, letting the water in to flood the land. The

whole country was thus turned into a great lake, out of which the towns stood up like little islands, and Louis's troops were forced to retreat for fear of being drowned.

Peace was at last made, and Churchill came back from the wars having risen to the rank of colonel. But with the English people he was not popular in spite of his brave deeds and his favour at court, for most of them objected to the Dutch war. They feared and hated Louis XIV, and did not want their own King Charles II to help him. All their sympathy was given to William of Orange, and at



William of Orange.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

last the demand for peace with Holland became so great that Charles gave in.

William was invited to England and, in 1677, married Charles II's niece, Princess Mary, the eldest daughter of James, Duke of York. This pleased the English and the Dutch, for Mary and William were both Protestant, and England and Holland were both Protestant countries ;

it was therefore hoped that the marriage would bind them together, and safeguard their religion.

The following year (1678) Churchill married a young lady of the court, Sarah Jennings by name, the favourite attendant and close friend of Princess Anne, who was the younger sister of Princess Mary. This marriage was afterwards to bring him great position and power, but that, of course, he could not yet know. He was one of the very few men in Charles II's court who married for love, rather than for money or position. With all his faults—and he had many—he was a good husband and a gentle, loving father, as can be seen from his letters to his wife Sarah all through his life.



Mary, wife of William  
of Orange.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

Soon after Churchill's marriage, his patron, James, Duke of York, openly acknowledged that he had become a Roman Catholic. This angered the English very much, for as James was Charles II's brother, and Charles had no heirs, James would some day become King of England, and the English, the majority of whom were Protestants, were greatly opposed to having a Roman Catholic on the throne. So strong, indeed, did the feeling grow, both in Parliament and in the country, that Charles sent his brother over to Brussels, and Colonel Churchill and his wife went with him. During the Duke of York's travels the husband and wife were often parted, but Churchill wrote charming letters to Sarah, giving her all the news of their two little girls, Henrietta and Ann.

"You cannot imagine how pleased I am with the children, for, having nobody but their maid, they are so fond of me that when I am at home they will always be with me, kissing and hugging me . . . . Miss is now pulling me by the arm that she may write to her dear mamma, so I shall say no more, only beg that you will love me always as well as I love you, and then we cannot but be happy."

Then comes a wobbly line where he was guiding his little girl's pen, while she wrote,

"I kiss your hands, my dear mamma—Harriet."

That seems an odd little message to-day from a small girl to her mother, but in Churchill's time children were brought up to pay great respect to their parents. Their manners were as stiff and formal as their quaint long skirts, which even little girls of five wore touching the ground, and every morning they greeted their parents by kissing their hands, and curtsying or bowing like tiny courtiers.

Towards the end of his reign, Charles II gained complete power over his Parliament and was able to have his brother, the Duke of York, back at court. Then James rewarded Churchill for his faithful service by asking Charles to make him a baron, and by giving him command of a fine new regiment. Lord Churchill, as he now became, was of course very pleased; and his wife too was pleased to be back at court, for there she was again near her dear friend, Princess Anne.

## PART II. IN JAMES II'S REIGN.

In February, 1685, Charles II died, and *James II* became king. At first the country received him well in spite of his religion, but James soon caused bitterness and unrest. He again made an alliance with Louis XIV,

who was once more disturbing the peace of Europe, and he received money from France, as Charles II had done. He also began to give all the high offices and important posts at court and in the government to Roman Catholics, which was against the laws of England. This made the people very angry with James II, but they comforted themselves with the thought that he was an elderly man and could not be king for many years ; and when he died, his Protestant daughter Mary, wife of William of Orange, who was much loved, would become queen.



James II.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

One man, however, had different plans. This was the exiled Duke of Monmouth, who decided to return to England while everyone was so angry with James, and try to win the crown for himself.

Monmouth landed on the coast of Dorsetshire in 1685, and thousands of the discontented country people flocked to join him. He was proclaimed king at Taunton in June, and marched towards Bristol to meet his supporters from Wales and the north. Meanwhile, James's troops marched against him, led by Feversham, with Churchill as second in command. Feversham was a very bad general, and when he was within a short distance of the rebels, he pitched camp at a little village in the middle of Sedgemoor Marsh.

The discipline in the camp was bad, and it was poorly guarded, and when Monmouth's scouts came back with this news, Monmouth decided to attack the camp by surprise at night.

It was a dark night with a thick mist, and the attack might have been successful, but, just as the rebels crept close to the camp, one of their pistols went off by accident, and warned the king's men of their approach. While Feversham still lay sleeping in bed, Churchill sprang up and took command, and by four o'clock in the morning he had utterly defeated the rebels.

Monmouth, seeing his cause was lost, deserted his men and fled for his life. One man who fought at Sedgemoor for Monmouth was Daniel Defoe, the author of *Robinson Crusoe*.

Feversham, though he had been in bed and taken no part in the battle, claimed all the glory for the victory. But Churchill did not show any anger at this unfair treatment. He never lost his temper, but waited for the day when he should be in supreme command himself.

Meanwhile, James II made himself still more unpopular by the cruelty he showed in punishing all who had helped Monmouth, or were thought to have wanted him to be king. Monmouth himself was caught and beheaded, and three hundred of his chief helpers were hanged, while eight hundred were sent away to the West Indies. At the same time James decided to keep a standing army, so that he could force the country to obey his wishes. He also claimed the power of "dispensing," or doing away with, the laws by royal command, when the law did not agree with what he wanted.

When they saw this, many of the leading men in England began to write secretly to William of Orange, as the brave young ruler of Holland was called, asking

him to come and defend English liberty in the name of his wife Mary. William had been carefully watching what was happening in England. He knew that some day he must interfere, not so much to help the English as to keep the power of Louis XIV in check. For Louis was still planning to add the great Spanish empire to his own kingdom, and William knew that only England was strong enough to stop him. He knew, too, that so long as James II was on the throne, England would be too busy with her own quarrels to try.

Lord Churchill, though he had always served James and owed everything to him, was among those who wrote to William. For he saw that James could not go on as he was doing, and Churchill was more eager to stand well with any new ruler than to be loyal to his old master.

When matters had reached this pitch, a little son was born to James by his second marriage, and a great outcry followed. The people had put up with James so long as they could look forward to the Protestant rule of Mary. But they knew that the baby prince, who was now heir to the throne, would be brought up as a Roman Catholic, and they were not prepared to submit to another Catholic king doing unlawful things, and claiming supreme power.

With one accord they again invited William of Holland to come to England, and in 1688 William came. As he marched towards London, men of all ranks hastened to join him, and when James II set out to oppose him, even the officers of the royal guard deserted and went over to William. Lord Churchill was among them. He left James's camp at night, and William received him coldly, for though he knew Churchill was a wonderful soldier, he hated deceitful men who were too ambitious, and who loved power more than loyalty. Unfortunately for

William, nearly all the men who held high office in England in those days had these faults.

James II fled to France, giving up his right to rule by deserting his kingdom, and throwing the Great Seal (which had to be stamped on the king's writs) into the



James II's flight from London. From an old engraving by de Hooghe.

*British Museum.*

Thames. For a short time there was confusion, when rioting and civil war might have followed. But William, by his calmness and courage, saved the situation, and he and his wife Mary were crowned king and queen in 1689.

### PART III. IN THE DAYS OF WILLIAM III AND MARY.

*William III* was determined to rule justly with a proper Parliament. Though all his life he had been very delicate, and had nearly always had asthma, he had learnt to be a great statesman as well as a brave soldier. After saving Holland by cutting the dykes during Louis XIV's invasion, he had made her as united and strong as a little country could be, and he meant to do the same



for England. It was a difficult task, for half the English lords were plotting with the exiled James against him ; and, though the English people had welcomed him, they were disappointed by his cold manners, and did not understand his true worth, so that he was not very popular or well served.

Lord Churchill seemed to serve William III well, but though William rewarded him by making him Earl of Marlborough, he did not really trust him. Indeed, Churchill, or *Marlborough* as he was called henceforth, meant to be on the safe side, in case James ever came back as king. Like many others, he wrote letters plotting with James, though he held high place at William's court. Marlborough's position at court had grown more important ; for his wife was still the close friend of James's younger daughter, the Princess Anne, who was very popular, and who, unless her sister Mary had children, would now one day become queen.

Marlborough enjoyed his high position at court, and, in spite of his letters to James, he wanted to prove himself useful to William.

William's first difficulty was a rebellion in James's favour in Ireland. He went himself to meet the *Jacobites*, as James's supporters were called, and defeated them at the battle of the Boyne (1690), which won him the north of Ireland. Then Marlborough landed in the south of the island, where in three days he captured three towns, and after a short brilliant campaign went back to England, completely victorious. William was generous in his praise. "No officer living," he said, "who has seen so little service as my Lord Marlborough, is so fit for great commands," and Marlborough was soon to show how true this was.

For Louis XIV had not given up his ambitions. He

was again planning to get the great Spanish Empire under his power, and William meant to stop him, for the safety of Europe. William and Marlborough crossed to Holland, where Marlborough did so well in the campaign against Louis, that the Dutch commander, speaking of the English generals, said, "Kirk has fire, Lanier has thought, Mackay has skill, and Colchester has bravery, but the Earl of Marlborough unites all these virtues in his single person."

Yet, in spite of his splendid virtues, Marlborough betrayed some of William's plans to James, and William was forced to take away his command.

Then quite suddenly Queen Mary died of small-pox, and all Marlborough's

scheming for power changed. He now no longer wished James to win back the throne, for William, who was very delicate, might at any moment die or be killed in battle, and then Anne would be queen. And Anne was so used to taking advice from both Marlborough and his wife that, if this happened, Marlborough knew that he himself would be the real ruler of England. So Marlborough stopped plotting with the Jacobites, and gave his whole support to the war against James's friend, Louis XIV.



Soldiers in Marlborough's Army



Sailor, end of the seventeenth century.

At last, after five years' service, Marlborough won back William's confidence and was told the plans of the Allies. For Holland, many of the German princes, and the Emperor of Austria had joined William in his struggle against Louis, a struggle which had now developed into the War of the Spanish Succession.

Thus William III had raised England to a proud position as the head of a great European alliance, yet he did not live to see his hope of crushing Louis carried out. In 1702 his horse stumbled over a molehill at Hampton Court, and William was thrown. Though he was only slightly injured, he was in such a bad state of health that he died from this small accident, and Anne became queen.

#### PART IV. IN THE REIGN OF "GOOD QUEEN ANNE."

*Anne* was thirty-seven, a dull, slow person, who could be very obstinate when roused. But she was a gentle wife and mother, and was popular because of the placid good-temper, and the sincere religion, which earned for her the name of "Good Queen Anne."

As soon as she became queen, Anne showered honours on her friends the Marlboroughs. Lady Marlborough



Queen Anne.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

was made the first of the queen's ladies and the keeper of the Privy Purse, and was given the Great Lodge at Windsor. Marlborough, who had easily persuaded Anne to continue William's war against France, soon afterwards

became Commander-in-Chief of the allied English and Dutch forces, with a salary of £10,000 a year.

At last Marlborough was in the position he had dreamt of and schemed for, and was able to give full play to his great power of managing armies and wars. In six years he won one of the most amazing series of victories in British History. In battle after battle, he outwitted and defeated Louis XIV's best generals and most splendid armies.

Marlborough made marches which his enemies did not think any man

would attempt. He dared attacks which other generals never dreamt were possible ; and yet he kept his men fitter and keener than any other troops of the day. This was because he himself did not drink or swear, as even the highest in the land did in his time, and so he was able to keep his men sober and orderly. Also he was so good at arranging for supplies that his men were always clean and well fed, with good boots and muskets, and his wounded well cared for.

The result was that the men would have followed him



John Churchill, Duke of Marlborough.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

anywhere in Europe—or out of it had he wished. Though he had allies, the real glory of the great victories in the war belongs to Marlborough.

Blenheim (1704), Ramillies (1706), Oudenarde (1708), and Malplaquet (1709) were the biggest of his victories, and his fame spread throughout Europe. In England he was at first immensely popular. He had made Britain one of the three greatest world powers, and in return he was made a duke, and given a pension and an estate. Queen Anne was then as pleased with him as her people were, and she began to build him a splendid palace called Blenheim, in honour of his earliest great success.

But as the wars went on, quarrels grew very bitter in England. Since Charles II's day there had been two

“parties” for ever opposing each other: the *Tories*, who supported the Church of England and, in general, the power of the king, and the *Whigs*, who favoured the Nonconformists and usually wished to limit the king's power as far as possible. Whatever one party praised the other attacked, so that when one party wished to continue the war, the other wished to stop it, and so on. Marlborough tried to keep outside these party quarrels, but his wife threw herself into them, until at last even



The Duchess of Marlborough.

*Notional Portrait Gallery.*

the queen grew tired of her temper and her scoldings, and began to confide in a new favourite, Mrs. Masham.

This made Marlborough's wife very jealous, and she was so rude to the queen that at last Anne dismissed her from court. About the same time England grew tired of



Blenheim Palace in Oxfordshire.

E.N.A.

war, and began to think of the cost of Marlborough's victories, instead of their glory. With the people in this mood, the Whigs lost their power, and the Tories came into office.

So Marlborough came back to find his wife in disgrace, and his friends out of power. His successes were either forgotten or scoffed at, and nobody paid the workmen to go on building Blenheim Palace.

Peace was made with Louis XIV by the Treaty of Utrecht (1713). Shortly afterwards the queen, influenced by her new Tory friends, took away Marlborough's high offices, and even allowed him to be sued by the contractors who were building Blenheim, and whom she had promised in the name of the nation to pay.

Marlborough now found as much blame being heaped upon him as praise had been a few years before. With quiet dignity he took his wife, whom he still loved dearly, though she had really caused all his troubles, to Germany, where men had not yet learnt to call a great general a coward and a thief. There he stayed until Anne died

in 1714. By an Act passed during her reign, George, Elector (or Prince) of Hanover, a great-grandson of James I and a Protestant, became George I of England.

Then Marlborough went back to England, and found that the uncertain tide of public favour had again turned towards him.

Guns were fired in his honour when he



Gentleman of the time of  
Queen Anne.



Lady of the time of  
Queen Anne.

landed at Dover, and as he neared London two hundred horsemen and a great company of carriages came out to meet him, and took him into the city among the shouts and cheers of the people. The new king gave him back some of his former offices, and Marlborough was able to help him in crushing the Jacobite rebellion of 1715. This rebellion tried to win back the throne for James II's son, James Edward, called the Old Pretender, but it was a complete failure.

Marlborough himself did not fight against the rebels. The days of his battles were over. For the last few years of his life, he spent his time in arranging his

collection of beautiful pictures, and playing games with his grandchildren, or cards with his friends.

Marlborough died in 1722, an old man of seventy-two. He had seen five monarchs on the English throne—Charles II, James II, William and Mary, Anne, and George I, and, for a time, at the height of his victories, he had held the destinies of Europe in his hand.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. How did John Churchill, as a boy, show what profession he wished to follow?
2. In what way was Louis XIV a danger to the peace of Europe?
3. "Churchill (Marlborough) was a great general, but William of Orange was a great man." Explain what is meant by this.
4. Tell the story of the battle of Sedgemoor.
5. Name some of the qualities that made Marlborough such a great general.
6. Tell the story of Marlborough's life after the Peace of Utrecht.

### 8. WILLIAM PITT, WOLFE, and CLIVE.

#### PART I. GEORGE I AND GEORGE II.

In 1708, the year that Marlborough won one of his famous battles, a weak, sickly little baby was born in a house in London, almost under the shadow of the Houses of Parliament. It was November. There were thick fogs on the river, and the baby's nurses doubted if he would live through the winter. But *William Pitt*, as the baby was called, not only lived through the winter, but grew up to become one of the greatest leaders of the Houses of Parliament in whose shadow he was born.

While Pitt was growing up, and being educated at Eton and Oxford, the man who really ruled England was *Sir Robert Walpole*, Prime Minister to George I and



George II. George I came from Germany to succeed Anne, when he was over fifty. He could not speak a word of English, and felt it was too late to learn, so he left almost all the government of the country in the hands of his ministers.

This was really the end of the struggle which had begun in the days of Charles I, when the civil wars were fought to decide whether King or Parliament should have the chief power in governing. George I gave the power to his ministers, and Walpole was the Prime, or chief, Minister for twenty-one years (1721-1742).

The great thing that Walpole did was to keep England at peace, so that she had time to make money again after spending so much on Marlborough's wars, and time to build up her trade, and to get used to her new line of kings. Walpole was a country squire, a big, good-humoured man, and under his rule not only trade, but also farming, improved very much, and the country grew rich and prosperous.

But though Walpole gave England peace and plenty, he had no ideals. As the custom then was, he accepted bribes, and allowed his followers to bribe and cheat also.

This did not at all fit in with William Pitt's ideas of good government. When he left Oxford, Pitt was still in delicate health, and had to travel abroad for its benefit. But in 1735 he was back in England, and became a Member of Parliament, and he very soon began to attack Walpole's methods in the House of Commons.



Robert Walpole.

Yet Pitt's upright nature and sense of honour did not bring him success. The king, *George II*, disliked him, thinking him too independent, and other Members of Parliament had grown so used to bribery that they thought him very foolish not to accept bribes, too. So it was not until after the fall of Walpole that Pitt held any important position.

Walpole lost his power when at last he let England go to war. The war began in 1739 over trade quarrels dating from Elizabeth's reign, between England and Spain in South America, and at first it was called the "War of Jenkins's Ear." This was because the final quarrel concerned a certain Captain Jenkins, who said that the Spaniards had unlawfully boarded his ship, and searched it, and that, when he resisted, they had cut off his ear.

This war grew into one of far greater importance, namely the War of the Austrian Succession. Before the Emperor of Austria died, he got the other powers of Europe to promise that they would allow his daughter, Maria Theresa, to succeed him. But as soon as he was dead, Frederick the Great of Prussia attacked Austria, and the other powers joined him. Only England kept her promise to help the young queen, and so in 1741 England found herself fighting, not only against Spain, but also against Prussia, France, and other countries. This war dragged on for eight years, and during it Walpole, who was not a good war minister, fell from favour and lost his high office.

It was also during this war that Charles Edward Stuart, called the Young Pretender, the grandson of James II, made a last desperate effort to win back the throne of England for the Stuart kings. He landed in Scotland in 1745 with only seven followers. The Highland clans flocked to join him, calling him "Bonnie

Prince Charlie," and he marched south and won a battle at Prestonpans. Then George II's son, William, Duke of Cumberland, met him at Culloden, and utterly defeated him, and after the battle Charles escaped alive by dressing up as a girl. After many adventures he succeeded in evading his enemies and reaching France.



The Cumberland Stone, Culloden Moor.

*H.M. Office of Works, by permission of the Controller, H.M. Stationery Office.*

## PART II. PITT, WOLFE, AND CANADA.

The year after this rebellion, Pitt at last came into office. Later he was made Paymaster-General of the Forces. He was the first man holding that office to refuse to take huge sums of money for himself, or to accept big "gifts" or bribes from those who wanted advancement.

And Pitt had many other qualities besides honesty. "He had the gift of conceiving great ideas and of carrying them out in detail," and before long the nation was forced to recognize his greatness.

After the War of the Austrian Succession, though the

nations ceased openly fighting in Europe, fighting continued between England and France in India and in Canada.

Ever since the days of Elizabeth there had been English trading posts in India, run by the famous East India Company. From India came indigo, dye-stuffs, cotton, muslins, and saltpetre for making gunpowder, and, a little later, tea and rice, and teak-wood for shipbuilding. The French too saw this rich trade, and they formed an East India Company and built trading posts, and a great struggle began to decide whether the English or the French should have the greater share of Indian trade.

Much the same thing was happening in North America, only there it was the French who had been the first to settle—in days already long ago, when Henry VIII was king of England. The English followed in the reign of James I, when the Puritans in England were so unhappy that a little band of them set sail in the *Mayflower* to find peace in the New World. Between the French colonists and the English there arose quarrels over the fisheries and the fur trade; and as the colonies grew these differences and disputes assumed a more serious character.

During the War of the Austrian Succession there was fighting in both Canada and India, and though the quarrel was patched up for a time, another war was bound to come. No one saw this more clearly than William Pitt. By his splendid speeches and his power of managing men, he had won his way to be Secretary of State and leader of the House of Commons. When war did break out in 1756, it was really he who won for Britain much of her great Empire.

For though Pitt never left England and was not himself a soldier, he gave such good orders to his generals

and admirals, and arranged so well for their supplies, that he had his share in every victory. He also managed to keep peace and prosperity at home, settling quarrels between the king and the government, and encouraging trade, so that England had money for her troops and her allies. But perhaps greater than all these things were the courage and confidence he inspired in those who served him.

"No one," it was said, "could go into Pitt's room without coming out of it a braver man."



William Pitt, Earl of Chatham.

*National Portrait Gallery*

In Europe France had Austria and Russia for her allies, and together they were fighting against Frederick the Great of Prussia. Pitt sent troops and huge sums of money to help Frederick, and he also kept an army in George II's principedom of

Hanover. With this army, one of Frederick's generals won the great battle of Minden in 1759.

This 1759 was a year of great victories. At sea Boscawen defeated half the French fleet off Lagos (Portugal), while Hawke defeated the other half in Quiberon Bay, (France), so that the French could send no help to their gallant general Montcalm in Canada. There the English captured Cape Breton Island and Fort Duquesne, which was renamed Pittsburg in honour of the great minister. Then the English general, *James Wolfe*, marched against France's last stronghold, the fortress of Quebec.

Wolfe was one of Pitt's "young men." He was barely thirty when Pitt had him made a general. But Pitt had faith in him, and, as always, Pitt proved a good judge. Wolfe's attack on Quebec made his name for ever famous.

Quebec was a natural fortress, defended by steep rocky cliffs on the south and west, by marshes on the east, and, on the north, by a river bank which Montcalm had had strongly fortified. It seemed impossible to take it, and for over two months Wolfe had tried in vain.

It was September. The freezing Canadian winter was drawing near, and many of Wolfe's men were sick, when he decided to risk everything on a last desperate plan. He made a great show of preparations on the River St. Lawrence below the town, and the French expected the attack from there. That was not at all Wolfe's real plan. He managed to send part of his fleet secretly up the river beyond the citadel, to the side which was more carelessly guarded, because the French thought that troops could not get up the cliffs.

Then, in the middle of the night, boats, full of silent men, and rowed with muffled oars, dropped downstream from Wolfe's ships; and a landing was made at the foot of the cliffs. Wolfe himself sat in one of the boats—murmuring poetry to himself.

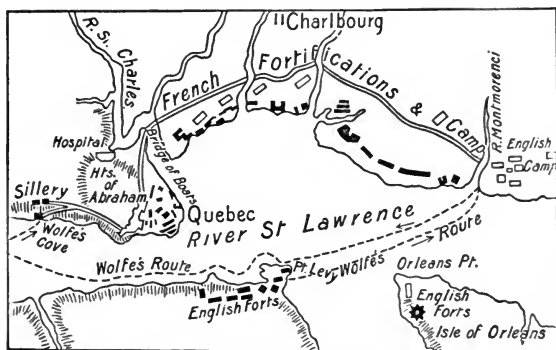


General Wolfe.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

He softly repeated these lines from a new poem, Gray's *Elegy*—

“The boast of heraldry, the pomp of power,  
And all that beauty, all that wealth e'er gave,  
Await alike the inevitable hour :  
The paths of glory lead but to the grave.”



Map illustrating the siege and capture of Quebec.

“I would rather have written that poem, than take Quebec,” he said gravely.

Then his boat grounded on the little beach, and his manner suddenly changed. His commands came swift and clear, and in perfect order his men began to scale the face of the cliff. Hour after hour they climbed in single file through the night up a faint zigzag track, where now and then they had to make a human ladder, standing on each other's shoulders and reaching back to pull up their fellows. When dawn broke, Wolfe stood at the head of four thousand men on the Heights of Abraham above Quebec.

This was the point from which, Montcalm had thought, an attack was impossible. He saw that he had been out-generalled, but he fought gallantly, defending his city to the end.

Wolfe, twice wounded but still at the head of his men, was struck by a third bullet and fell to the ground. As he lay dying, his officers brought him the news that the French were giving way at every point, and his last words were,

“Now, God be praised, I die happy.”

The brave Montcalm, too, was mortally wounded and died the next day.

The result of this momentous battle was that Canada became part of the British Empire.

### PART III. PITT, CLIVE, AND INDIA.

Meanwhile in India another of Pitt’s “young men,” *Robert Clive*, was winning glory for himself and an empire for his country.

Clive was the son of a Shropshire squire. He was a very troublesome boy, so full of wild tricks and daring that at eighteen his parents sent him to Madras as a clerk in the East India Company’s service, to get him out of the way.

The French had then a brilliant leader in India named Dupleix, who had taken advantage of quarrels among the Indian princes to make alliances which greatly increased the power of France in the land. The English had allied themselves with other Indian princes, but they had come off decidedly badly in fighting against Dupleix, and the people of India thought the French far more powerful and important than the English.

It was Clive who showed them they were wrong. He very soon left his clerkship, and became an officer in the East India Company’s army, and his great chance came in the taking of Arcot (1751).

Arcot was the capital of a state claimed by two rival princes. Dupleix supported one, and the English



promised to help the other. The English governor at Madras could raise only eight officers and five hundred men, and of these three hundred were sepoys, or native soldiers, and six of the officers had never seen active service. Arcot was fifty miles away ; it seemed hopeless

to try to get there, and capture it with so small a band, but Clive asked leave to try.



Lord Clive.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

He reached the town in a tempest of thunder, lightning, and rain, and his arrival was so unexpected that the defenders fled in panic. Clive entered in triumph, but very soon the enemy came swarming back. For fifty days Clive and his five hundred men were besieged by a force of ten thousand. The walls of the fort were in ruins and his men starving, but Clive

hung on. Then the enemy tried to storm the fort, using elephants with iron plates on their foreheads as battering rams. But Clive's men poured down volley after volley of shot, until the great terrified animals turned and stampeded, crushing their own masters underfoot. At last the French gave up the struggle, Dupleix was recalled to France in disgrace, and British power increased in India.

The Indians resented this, and in 1756 Surajah-Dowlah, the Nabob (or ruler) of Bengal, ordered the British to stop fortifying their trading station at Calcutta. Knowing

that another war with France might begin at any moment, the English refused. So the Nabob, who was a violent-tempered boy of nineteen, marched against the post with thirty thousand men.

With amazing heroism, the handful of English in Calcutta held out for three days before they surrendered. Then happened the darkest tragedy in all the story of British India.

A hundred and forty-six men, women, and children were driven into a narrow prison cell with two tiny barred windows, and, huddled together almost too tightly to breathe, they had to endure the terrible heat of an Indian June night.

Mad with suffering, they struggled and fought to get at the windows for air; some, in their agony of thirst, implored the jeering guards to shoot them and end their torture; some fainted; some died, and in their fall dragged down the living with them.

When at last the morning broke, and the Nabob sent orders that the prisoners might come out, only twenty-three of the one hundred and forty-six crawled over the dead bodies to the door.

This was the *Black Hole of Calcutta*, 1756.

A year later, Clive marched against the Nabob with three thousand men and eight guns, and the Nabob met him at the head of an army of fifty thousand with forty cannon. They met at *Plassey* (1757), and there Clive fought one of the most important battles in British history, and avenged the Black Hole atrocity. For, with the help of his Indian ally, Mir Jafir, Clive won against those overwhelming odds. Mir Jafir was put on the Nabob's throne in Bengal, and in a few years Clive had



A soldier of the  
Period.

made arrangements with him which brought Bengal under British control, and so founded the Indian Empire.

#### PART IV. PITT, AMERICA, AND AUSTRALIA.

In the midst of these British successes in all parts of the world, George II died (1760), and his grandson, George III, came to the throne.



George III.

George III had many good qualities, and was very popular with the people during his long reign. But he was vain and obstinate, and as he insisted on having as much to do with the government as he possibly could, these faults often made matters very difficult for his ministers. His first and perhaps greatest mistake was to oppose the best of all his ministers, Pitt; and, within a year of the new king's accession, Pitt resigned.

After Pitt gave up his post as Prime Minister, England was no longer so successful. The other ministers quarrelled among themselves at home. They mismanaged affairs abroad, until the Seven Years' War, in which Minden, Plassey, and Quebec were fought, was ended by a peace which was signed at Paris in 1763.

Britain could look proudly at her possessions that year. In America, thanks to the work of Pitt and Wolfe, her colonies now stretched from Hudson Bay to the Gulf of Mexico. But in the next twenty years a great change was to take place.

Though freed from any danger from the French, the

American colonists still had to meet the danger of Red Indian risings. One of these risings took place shortly after the Peace of Paris, and it was decided that the colonies should have a standing army. Britain was to pay two-thirds of the cost; the colonists were to be taxed by



Citizen and wife in the middle of George III's reign.

Britain to pay the other third. The colonists resented very much being taxed by the British Parliament three thousand miles away in London. They did not so much mind paying the money for the army, but they wanted the taxes for it to be arranged by their own parliaments in their own way.

The quarrel grew, and became more and more bitter. Pitt, who had been very ill, was asked to form a ministry again, and in 1766 he did so, and was created Earl of Chatham. He was getting old, and was shaken by illness,

but he still had a clearer vision and a truer sense of justice than any man in England. He sympathized with the Americans, and urged that they should be allowed to arrange their taxes themselves as long as they were willing to pay their fair share. But others thought that the colonists, like other subjects of the king, should submit without question to English laws. Pitt, or Chatham as he now was, saw that a rebellion certainly would come if Britain went on using tactless force and threats. But his constant illness at this time made his behaviour strange in some ways, and took the fire from his speech, so that no one listened to him. In 1768 he resigned.

It was also in 1768, when England was well on the way towards losing one colony, that she gained another.

One of Wolfe's scouts at the siege of Quebec was a daring young naval officer called *James Cook*. When peace came, Cook set off to explore the South Pacific. He sailed along the coast of New Zealand and touched Eastern Australia, which he named New South Wales and claimed for Britain. Later he made two far more wonderful voyages, which altered everybody's ideas of the geography of the world, and which made Australia and New Zealand part of the British Empire.



Captain Cook.

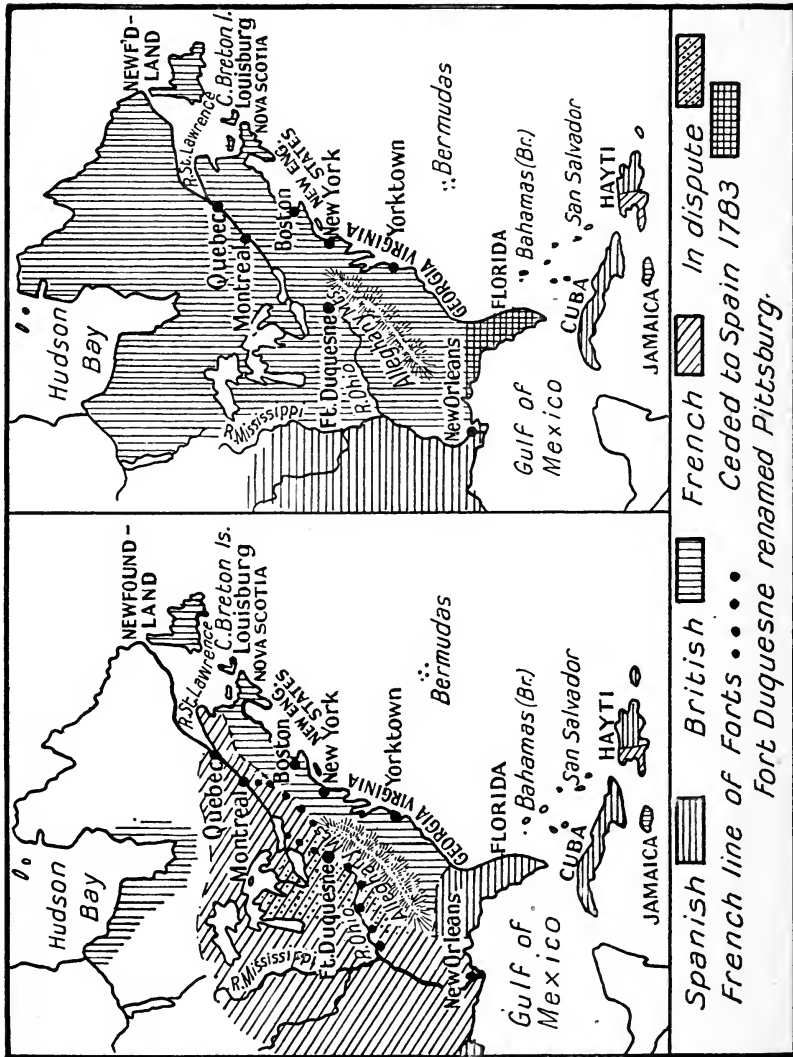
Chatham, though he lived to know of this, was not comforted. For he had also lived to see England at war with her older colonies in America, and to know that the Americans, with the help of the French, were winning.

In 1776 the colonists issued their *Declaration of Independence* declaring the thirteen North American colonies to be free and independent states. Britain did not accept this, and fighting went on.

Chatham had always spoken for peace and friendship, but since war had come he begged that England would not give in, though he advised that she should grant the colonies everything they asked for, except independence, rather than lose them altogether.

When about to make his last speech, he was so ill that he had to be carried into the House of Lords, and, whilst pleading for peace and union, he fell back unconscious, and died a few days later (1778).

He left England faced with a great crisis, for Spain and Holland joined with France in helping America against

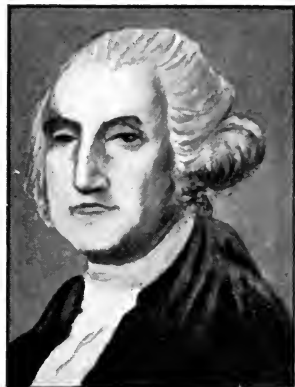


Map of British and French Possessions in North America before and after 1763.

her. But Britain quickly regained the sea power that had been lost for a time, and this, and the loyalty of Canada saved her from even greater disaster than the loss of the American colonies.

The war went on, with much mismanagement and discontent in England, until 1783. Then Britain and the other powers of Europe all agreed to recognize the *United States* as an independent nation. At the same time Britain had to give up also certain places in other parts of the world to France and Spain.

Europe thought that the days of Britain's greatness had passed with Chatham, and that now her power would grow smaller and smaller. It was left to Chatham's son, William Pitt the younger, and to his great admiral, Nelson, to prove that this was wrong.



George Washington, first President  
of the United States.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. What was the great benefit that Walpole conferred on England while he was Prime Minister, and how can it be said that George I's reign really ended the struggle that had begun in the Civil War of Charles I's reign?
2. "Pitt had many other qualities besides honesty." Tell what kind of a man Pitt was.
3. Name two of "Pitt's young men," and say what they did for England in Canada and India.
4. How did Clive avenge the tortures of the Black Hole of Calcutta?
5. Why and how did the American colonies become the United States?
6. Tell the story of Captain Cook.

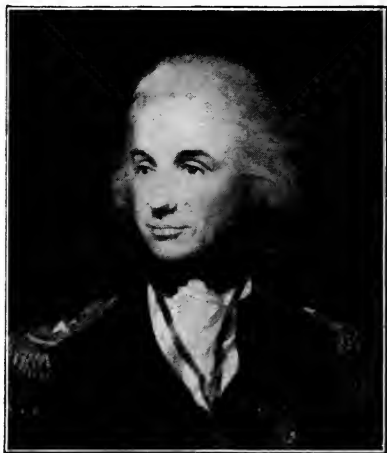
## 9. NELSON AND NAPOLEON.

### PART I. EARLY ADVENTURES OF NELSON.

*Horatio Nelson* was one of a family of eleven, the children of a country parson in Norfolk. As a small boy, he was neither the strongest nor the cleverest of this big family, and he came in for his full share of teasing and friendly buffeting. But though Horatio had neither brilliant brains nor brawny muscles, he managed to do more than hold his own, because of his unbreakable spirit.

It was Horatio who led the way and urged on an older brother, when once they had to find their way to school through a deep fall of snow. And at school it was he who volunteered to be lowered on a sheet from the dormitory window to raid the headmaster's pear trees, though he would not eat any of the fruit, saying he had gone to get it only because the other boys were afraid.

When Horatio was nine, his mother died. Her brother, Maurice Suckling, a captain in the Navy, came to the funeral and promised Mr. Nelson, who did not know quite what to do with all the children, that when they were old enough he would take one of the boys to sea. Three years later, Horatio, though he was only



Lord Nelson.

*National Portrait Gallery.*



twelve, begged his father to allow him to be the one. Captain Suckling was written to, and his answer shows that Horatio was not the nephew he expected.

"What," he wrote, "has poor Horatio done, who is so weak, that he, above all the rest, should be sent to rough it out at sea?"

Horatio, however, soon showed that, though he was weak, he was quite capable of winning his way by means of pluck and courage. His first voyage was to the West Indies, and he made such good use of his time that he returned "a practical seaman." His uncle then took him on his own ship the *Triumph*, which was stationed as a guard-ship in the Thames, and Nelson learnt to sail a cutter and a longboat, and became a good pilot up and down the river from the Tower of London to the North Foreland.

But the small sands and currents of the Thames did not long content Nelson's adventurous spirit. England was then at peace and the Navy resting, but Nelson heard that two ships were being fitted out for a voyage of discovery to the North Pole, and he begged to be allowed to join them. Because of the difficulties and dangers of the Arctic, it had been decided not to take any ship's boys, but his uncle, Captain Suckling, managed to get Nelson taken on one of the ships, called the *Racehorse*, and he sailed away to the north.

At about the same place where other Polar explorers had met with trouble, the *Racehorse* was surrounded by floating ice. The commander, Captain Phipps, ordered her to be heaved through with ice-anchors, hoping to find open water again beyond. Open water there was, but it was like a great lake, with banks of ice, covered with snow, lying low and even all around. There was no wind, and there the *Racehorse* lay becalmed, while

the channel through which she had come froze over, and the ice closed in around her without a gap to be seen.

The sailors got out, shouting and running, and played games on the ice-fields. They found pools of pure fresh water, and refilled the ship's casks, and were happy and excited. But the officers and Greenland pilots realized what danger they were in. None of the pilots had ever been so far north, and there were no charts or maps to guide them.

Then the ice, which had been flat and almost level with the water, began to crack up and churn around them. Huge blocks were thrust up into the air, higher than the mainmast of the *Racehorse*; great jagged splinters tore at her sides like enormous sharks' teeth, and a dense fog settled down over her.

None of these dangers seems to have frightened Nelson in the least. One night, indeed, he stole away from the ship with a young seaman, and set out over the ice to chase a bear. When morning came, and the fog lifted, the captain spied them a long way off, attacking the bear with an old-fashioned musket. He sent up a signal for them to return at once, and the seaman obeyed, calling to Nelson to follow him. But, though he had no powder or balls left for his musket, Nelson would not follow, but exclaimed, "Do but let me get a blow at this beast with the butt-end of the musket, and we shall have him yet."

Of course, such a blow as a boy could have given would hardly have hurt the bear at all, and Nelson's life was saved only by the ice splitting, and a big chasm opening between him and the great white beast.

Another lucky split in the ice enabled the *Racehorse* to shake herself free, and her crew went on ahead, cutting a way through blocks of ice sometimes twelve feet thick,

and forcing the ship along narrow cracks until at length she reached clear water and a good wind, and was able to use her sails again.

Even then dangers surrounded the explorers. Icebergs of clear green, three hundred feet high, bore down upon them, and great blocks mounted on each other, and thundered off again into the sea, as the little wooden vessel pressed on under a sky loaded with hard white clouds.

But at last they escaped and returned safely to England, and almost at once Nelson set off again in another ship, sailing for the East Indies.

On this voyage he was made a midshipman, but in India he caught a terrible fever that wasted him away until he seemed only a skeleton covered with skin, and he was so weak that he could not move at all. Everyone on board thought that he would die during the voyage home, but he recovered, and, in spite of his illness, passed his examinations and became a lieutenant soon after he reached England.

This was in 1777, when England was at war with her American colonies, and Nelson next set sail to fight the Americans and their French allies in the Atlantic. In one fight a gale was blowing and a heavy sea running; and, though the American lowered her flag in sign of surrender, the boats from the English ship could not put across to board her.

"Have I no officer who can board the prize?" cried the captain.

Nelson sprang forward to volunteer, and he reached the American and finally boarded her, though she was so damaged and sunken in the water, and the waves were so high, that in his first attempt Nelson's boat was swept right on to the American's deck, and off again over the other side.

Nelson was soon made a first lieutenant, and then won a command of his own in 1779, the year that Spain joined the Americans and French in fighting against England.

England then planned an attack on the Spanish colonies in Central and South America. Fort San Juan was to be taken, and a company of soldiers sent on upstream to cut the Spanish forces in two. Nelson's ship was to carry the soldiers to the mouth of the San Juan river. He got there, and successfully landed five hundred men. Then, having carried out his orders, Nelson could have sailed safely away. But he knew that many dangers lay before the soldiers, and he decided to help them further.

His own boats could not possibly get up the river, which was filled with shoals and rapids, but many of the American Indians were friendly to the English. They lent enough native river-craft for two hundred soldiers to get in, and some of the Indians joined them to act as guides. Then Nelson's sailors manned the boats, and they set off.

It was the dry season, and the river was very low. The Indians found what channels there were between the sandbanks, but often the men had to get out and wade, dragging the boats, or lifting them over rapids and falls. At last, after several days of toil through terrible heat, with fever-breeding swamps on either side of the river, they reached the first Spanish outpost. This was a small fort on an island in midstream, which they could not hope to pass without capturing.

Nelson, at the head of some of his seamen, was the first to leap on to the island. The ground was so muddy that he sank up to his knees, and struggled out with difficulty, losing his shoes. But, barefooted, he rushed on to attack the battery of the little fort, and in a few minutes it was taken.

San Juan was sixteen miles above this outpost, and before they reached it, they had to leave the river and cut their way through dense tropical forests, carrying their ammunition and as much as they could of their stores.

More dangers lurked in the forest. One man was bitten by a snake which darted at him from the branch of a tree, and he died in agony. Nelson himself was almost killed in the same way. His hammock was slung between the trees, and as he lay sleeping, a lizard ran across his face. He woke and started up, and then saw, coiled in the hammock at his feet, a deadly poisonous snake.

Though he escaped from this, he was, later on, poisoned by drinking bad water, and he was ill when they reached San Juan, eleven days' journey from the river's mouth. But he helped to besiege the place, and encouraged the army captain to hold on, even though more than half the English were dying of fever. Then, luckily for himself, he had orders to return and put to sea again, which probably saved his life, for even then he was so ill he had to go back to England.

So, before he was twenty-three, Nelson had faced the dangers of Arctic ice and American tropical forests, had fought on land and sea, and escaped a dozen times from death by fever and frost-bite, snakes and poison, cannon balls and drowning.

Yet, later than this, the Duke of Clarence, George III's sailor son (afterwards King William IV), said that he looked "the merest boy of a captain ever seen." He was an odd little figure, dressed in "a full-laced uniform, and an old-fashioned waistcoat with long flaps," and he wore his "lank unpowdered hair tied back in a stiff tail of extraordinary length."

"But," said the duke, after meeting him, "his con-

versation was irresistibly pleasing, and when he spoke of naval subjects he showed he was no ordinary being."

By the time the American War of Independence was over (1783), many people agreed with the duke that Nelson was "no ordinary being"; but his name was not yet known to the French against whom he was to win his most famous battles.

## PART II. THE WARS AGAINST NAPOLEON.

### I.



Napoleon Bonaparte.

In 1789 there began the terrible *French Revolution*. The people ended the old feudal system, killed their king and many of the nobles, and set up a republic. This was the beginning of modern France. A time called the Reign of Terror passed—a time of violent quarrels and fighting and sudden death.

Then one man began to rise steadily in power and fame until, in the end, he made himself Emperor of France, and master of nearly all Europe. This man was *Napoleon Bonaparte*,\* a poor young Corsican soldier who became one of the greatest generals in all history.

Half Europe was soon fighting against Napoleon, for he meant to conquer every country that he could, and bring it under the power of France. The country he hated most of all was Britain, for it was she whose wealth and sea-power stood in his way, and interfered with his plans for conquering the other countries.

At the beginning of these wars England had no very

\* Napolcon's father spelt the name *Buonaparte*, and he did so himself in his earlier years.

great general. But the Prime Minister, *William Pitt the Younger*, son of Lord Chatham, formed alliances against Napoleon and sent money and soldiers to help those who were resisting him on the continent. Pitt was able to do this, because England was mistress of the seas. The Navy protected the rich trade which brought Pitt the money, and guarded the ships in which he sent the soldiers across the Channel. So much of the struggle for power was really between Napoleon and the British Navy, and this soon became a striving between Napoleon and Nelson.

For, in spite of Pitt's help, Napoleon beat the Austrians, and by 1796 he had Austria, Belgium, Holland, and Italy under his thumb, and Spain as his ally. But Napoleon was not able to push his success as far as he wished, because Nelson's ships held the Mediterranean, guarding the islands there, and supporting the towns of Genoa and Naples against the French. Nelson's courage and fearless justice made him so well known along these southern coasts that a letter addressed to him, "Horatio Nelson, Genoa," reached him without delay. It was in one of his fights with the French at this time that Nelson lost the sight of his right eye.

Then Napoleon tried to strike at England through Ireland. He sent the French fleet there, but his ships were scattered by a storm, and did not succeed in doing



William Pitt, the Younger.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

anything. The Spanish fleet now tried to help the French. Sir John Jervis sailed against them, with Nelson as his second-in-command, and a great battle was fought off *Cape St. Vincent* (1797).

This was an exciting battle for Nelson. In his little ship, the *Captain*, and with one other English ship to help

him, he fought five Spaniards, twice the size of his own vessels. By the time that two of the Spaniards had surrendered, the *Captain* was so battered that she could no longer sail or fire her guns. But Nelson let her drift against the Spanish *San Nicolas*, so that he could go on fighting hand to hand. He himself jumped across on to the deck of the *San Nicolas*, and led an attack with pistols and cutlasses against the Spanish officers, who locked themselves in the captain's cabin, and fired through the windows, until Nelson's men with a sudden rush burst in the door.



Sailor in Nelson's time.

As soon as he had captured the *San Nicolas*, Nelson opened fire from her against another Spaniard, the *San Josef*, which he very soon boarded and captured as well, after a fierce struggle up and down her decks.

So Nelson captured two of the enemy, after his own ship was such a wreck that many another man would have given in.

Meanwhile Sir John Jervis and his other commanders had been almost as successful in dealing with the rest



of the Spanish fleet, and for this great victory Sir John was made Earl St. Vincent, while Nelson became Rear-Admiral Sir Horatio Nelson.

Then he was given a new ship, the *Theseus*, on which there had just been a mutiny, and whose crew were still in a dangerous mood. But Nelson could handle men so well, and he chose his officers so wisely, that within a few weeks a paper signed by the whole ship's company was sent to him, reading as follows :—

“Success attend Admiral Nelson ! God bless Captain Miller ! We thank them for the officers they have placed over us. We are happy and comfortable, and will shed every drop of blood in our veins to make the *Theseus* as famous as her commander.”

Now Napoleon wanted his Spanish allies to make another attempt against the English, but Nelson blockaded what was left of the Spanish fleet in Cadiz Harbour, and there another desperate fight took place. Nelson was making a night attack on the Spanish gunboats. He was in a barge with only twelve men, when an armed launch with a crew of twenty-seven bore down on him. The boats were locked together, rocking in the darkness while their crews stood up fighting with cutlasses. Though there were over twice as many Spaniards as English, Nelson won in the end. But he would have been killed, if it had not been for a brave seaman who, seeing the little admiral almost overpowered, jumped forward and took across his own head a swordstroke meant for Nelson.

Nelson's next orders were to capture Santa Cruz in Teneriffe, the largest of the Canary Islands, and it was in action here that he lost his right arm, and suffered one of his few defeats. He was shot down at the beginning of operations, while he was landing with his men on a

great breakwater to attack the fort, and he was so badly wounded that after he had been taken back to England, he lay ill for three months.

## 2.

During this time Napoleon was making new plans for breaking the power of Britain. Having failed at sea with both the French and the Spanish fleets, he decided to attack Britain through her colonies, and all his thoughts turned towards India.

"For only in the East," he said, "do great empires rise and fall." He intended to make himself head of a very great empire indeed, so he decided to go to the East.

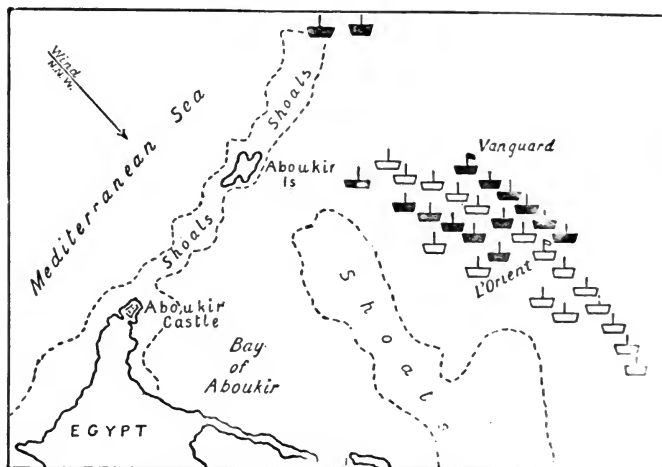
He sailed from Toulon in the south of France, captured Malta, and made for Egypt, where he meant to land his armies and march east.

But by this time Nelson's wound had healed, and he was at sea again, and hot on the trail of Napoleon. Of course he did not know Napoleon's plans, but he made a good guess at them, and only just missed the French ships in the Mediterranean. The tracks of the two fleets crossed each other in the night, and so Napoleon got safely to Egypt and landed his men. Within three weeks he won the battle of the Pyramids (1798), and made himself master of Egypt.

All Europe trembled; no one dared to say where Napoleon's conquering career would end.

Then Nelson found the French fleet at the mouth of the *Nile*, thirteen ships of the line and four frigates, carrying 1,196 guns and 11,230 men. The British had fewer ships, fewer guns, and fewer men, but Nelson never for a moment hesitated. He sailed into action at about half past six in the evening, and within an hour it was pitch dark. Only the spurts of flame from the guns

and the red glare of a burning French man-of-war lit up the battle. About nine o'clock Nelson was terribly wounded in the head, and was carried below. The surgeon left the other wounded, and rushed forward to help him ; but Nelson ordered him back, saying,



Plan of the Battle of the Nile, 1st August, 1798.  
British Ships in Black; French Ships in Outline.

“ I will take my turn with my brave fellows.”

When the wound was at last dressed, the bandages quite covered his only eye ; but, blind and suffering as he was, Nelson made them bring him news how the fight went, and continued to give his orders.

Only four of the seventeen French ships escaped. All the rest were burnt, sunk, or captured, while Nelson lost not a single ship.

The effect of this great victory was that Napoleon was cut off from France—stranded with his army in Egypt without ships to bring him supplies.

“Had I been master of the sea,” he said, “I should have been lord also of the East.”

As it was, the next year he was forced to leave his army, and sail back to France alone.

Meantime Nelson received many honours. Ill and in constant pain, he sailed from Egypt to Naples, where he found a magnificent carnival being held in his name, and he received presents and messages from half the kings and princes of Europe, thanking him for delivering them from Napoleon.

Napoleon, however, had not at all given up his dreams of a great empire. When he arrived back from Egypt, he collected another army, and again beat the Austrians and subdued Italy. Then he won Russia, Sweden, and Denmark as allies, and banded together all their fleets against England.

But England did not wait for this fleet to put to sea. Nelson sailed straight to *Copenhagen* (1801), where it was gathered, and attacked it in the harbour.

His ships had to pass in right under the shore batteries, while the Danish ships lay near enough to the quays for new men to be constantly sent into them. Within a few minutes the masts of Nelson's ship were shot away, and the position looked so bad that Admiral Sir Hyde Parker signalled an order for Nelson to retreat.

When Nelson was told of the signal, he put his telescope to his *blind* eye, and said solemnly,

“I really do not see the signal.”

Then, turning to his captain, he added,

“I have only one eye, so I have a right to be blind sometimes.” And he fought on until he had sunk the Danish fleet!

After this battle Nelson was made a viscount, and when he got back to England, whole towns and villages

turned out to greet him, taking the horses from his carriage, and dragging it themselves with cheers and songs.

But still Napoleon did not give up hope of crushing his great enemy. At sea no one was able to beat the English, but on land no one had ever beaten the French since Napoleon led them.

Everywhere his armies were victorious, and so he decided to fight England with soldiers instead of seamen, and he got ready an army to invade her.

### 3.

Nelson was given command of the Channel to guard against this danger of the invasion of England. While Napoleon gathered together his soldiers, and built great flat pontoons to carry them to England, Nelson cruised along the French coast in a small frigate, and scared back into port any French ship that tried to put to sea. At Boulogne, the very place where Napoleon was preparing, Nelson sailed right in, near enough to destroy some floating batteries at the harbour's mouth, and to sink some gunboats alongside the pier.

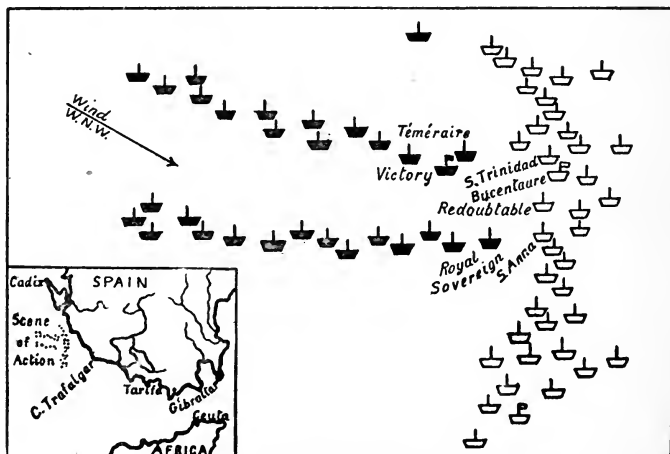
Then Napoleon began to see that he would never be able to get his soldiers across to England while Nelson was in Europe, and he planned a trick to get him away.

The French fleet was in harbour, half at Brest, and half at Toulon. The Toulon fleet was to slip out and pretend to go to Egypt, then double back through the Straits of Gibraltar, and make for the West Indies, where the Brest fleet was to join it.

Napoleon hoped that Nelson would sail right to Egypt before he discovered the trick, and then give chase to the West Indies, while the French would already have

hurried back to sweep the Channel clear for the soldiers' pontoons. It was a clever plot, but it failed.

The Toulon fleet, under Villeneuve, played its part, but Nelson was not long deceived. He, too, doubled back in the Mediterranean, and pursued the French to the West Indies. There Villeneuve expected to meet the

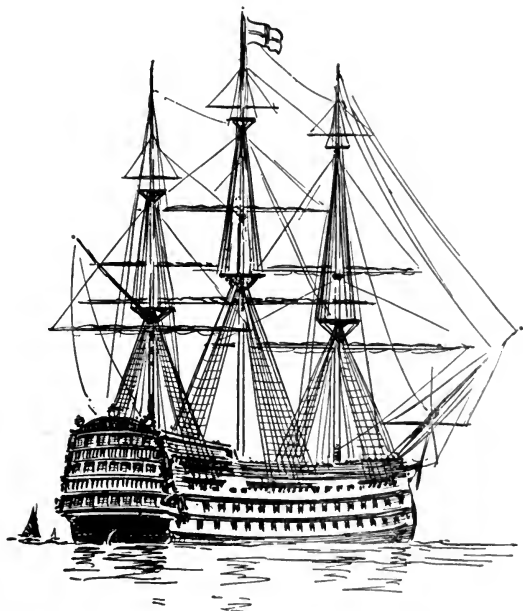


Plan of the Battle of Trafalgar, 21st October, 1805.  
British Ships in Black; French and Spanish Ships in Outline.

Brest fleet; but the English had blockaded that, and it had never got out of harbour. So Villeneuve set off for Europe again, with Nelson after him.

At the same time Nelson sent on a very fast brig which sailed past the French, took count of their ships, and carried the news to England. Within three hours ships were ordered out to meet Villeneuve, and, with this new squadron bearing down from the north, and Nelson close behind him, the French admiral was forced to put into a Spanish port.

So Napoleon was never able to launch his pontoons, and his plan for invading England failed. He took his armies away from Boulogne, and began a fresh war against Austria and Russia.

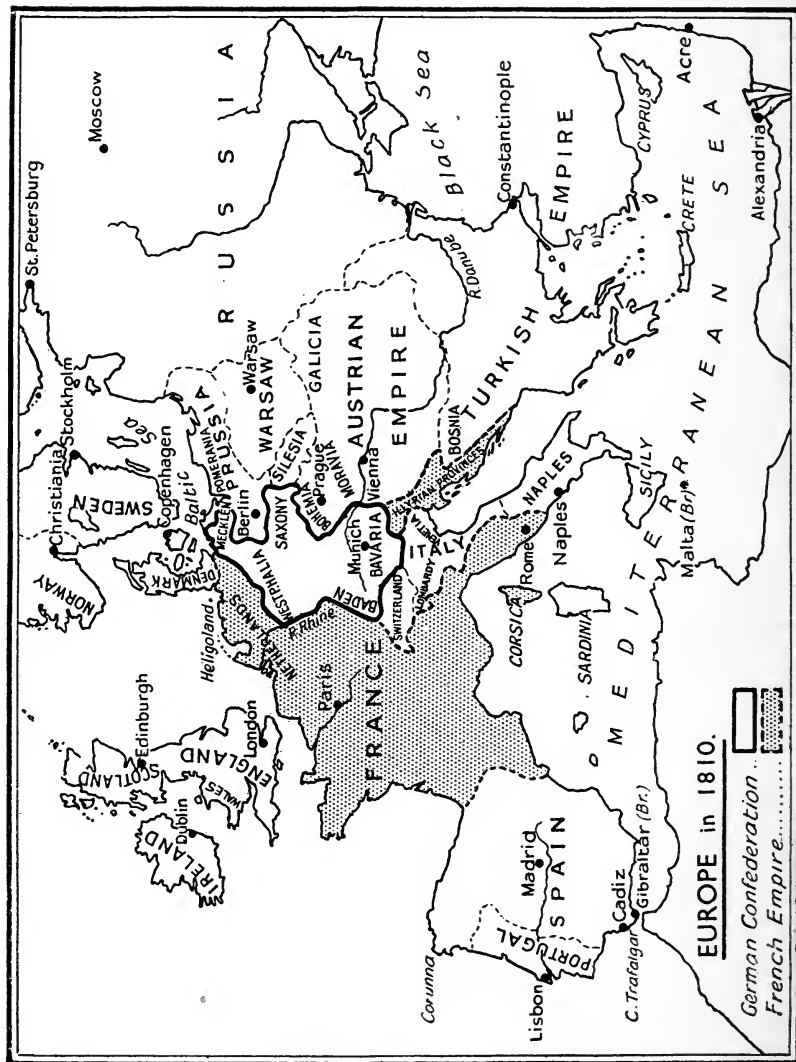


The *Victory*, Nelson's flagship at Trafalgar.

It was then that Villeneuve managed to slip down the Spanish coast to Cadiz, and join the Spanish fleet. But when the combined French and Spanish fleets came out of that harbour, they found Nelson waiting for them.

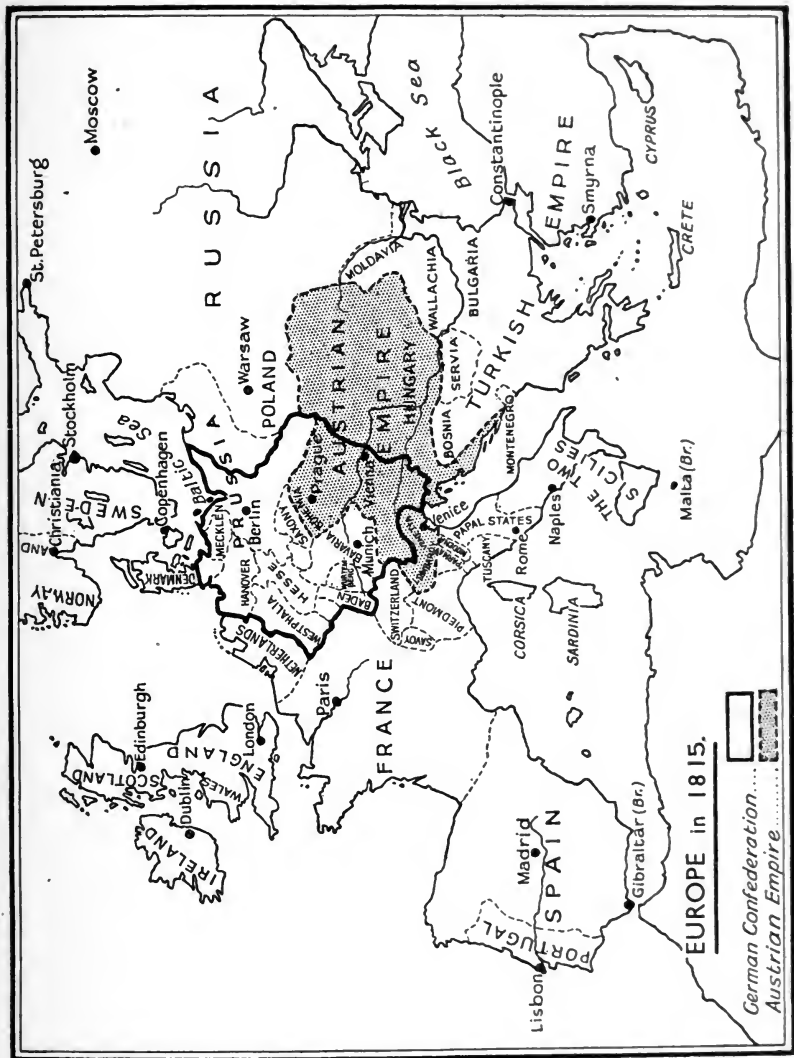
There followed the mighty battle of *Trafalgar* (1805), when Nelson sent up his famous signal,

“England expects every man to do his duty!”



Map to illustrate the extent of the French Dominion under Napoleon in 1810.





Map showing the boundaries of the States in Europe after the Congress of Vienna.

This was the last signal that Nelson ever sent out to his fleet ; for, when the battle was at its height, he was mortally wounded.

He went into action wearing his full uniform as admiral, and all his stars and medals ; for he had once said,

“ In honour I gained them, and in honour I will die with them.”

But these, and the empty sleeve pinned across his chest, made him very easy for the enemy to recognize as he paced the deck of the *Victory*, and he was shot down by a crack rifleman on the topmast of one of the French men-of-war.

He knew that he was dying, and as he was carried below, he covered his face and his medals so that his own sailors should not know it and lose courage. For some hours he lay in great pain among the wounded in the cockpit, while the battle raged on above. All that could be done for him was to fan him with paper, and give him drinks of lemonade, for he was very thirsty.

But, all the time, he asked for news of the progress of the fight, and sent back his orders, until at last his friend Captain Hardy came and told him victory was certain.

“ Now I am satisfied,” said Nelson. “ Thank God, I have done my duty.”

Then he said, “ Kiss me, Hardy ” ; and Hardy knelt down and kissed him. Whispering again, “ Thank God, I have done my duty,” the great admiral died at the very hour of his most glorious victory. The French and Spanish fleets were practically destroyed, and Napoleon was never again able to interfere with England at sea.

But he still won battles on land, until at last the Duke of Wellington and the Prussians finally defeated him at Waterloo in Belgium (1815), ten years after the battle of Trafalgar.

## QUESTIONS.

1. Tell the story of Nelson's early life, and his Polar expedition.
2. What service had Nelson seen before he was twenty-three?
3. Write the story of what Nelson did at the battle of Cape St. Vincent.
4. How did Nelson spoil Napoleon's plans in Egypt?
5. "I really do not see the signal." Who said this? Why? And where? What was the result?
6. Tell how Nelson saved England from being invaded by Napoleon.
7. What happened at Trafalgar and at Waterloo, and when?

## 10. SIR ROBERT PEEL (1788-1850).

## PART I. REFORM OF THE CRIMINAL LAWS.

Robert Peel was one of the reformers and statesmen of the early nineteenth century. He was born at Bury, in Lancashire, in 1788, the year before the French Revolution broke out.

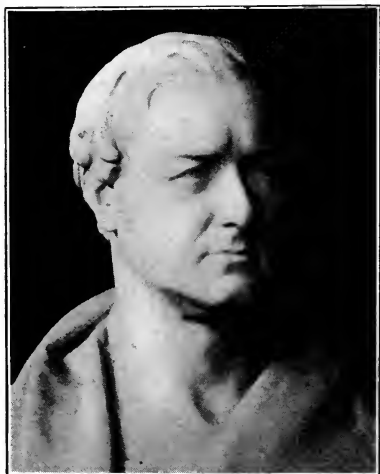
He belonged to a family which had become rich as a result of the recent mechanical inventions. His grandfather was once a calico printer at Blackburn; but after the "spinning jenny" was invented by Hargreaves, a fellow townsman, he gave up calico printing, took to spinning, and made a fortune.

Then Robert Peel's father carried on a similar business at Bury. He, too, made money, and bought an estate, Drayton Manor, near Tamworth. He sat in Parliament as member for Tamworth, and became the trusted and honoured friend of William Pitt the Younger.

His famous son, Robert Peel, was educated at Harrow, and, after studying the law, he entered Parliament in 1809, at the age of twenty-one. There were many clever young men in Parliament in those days; but Robert Peel rose to fame, not by great speeches or by brilliant genius,

but by steady, hard work, by close attention to his duties, and by studying carefully the business of Parliament.

In 1817 Peel was elected member for the University of Oxford, a much coveted honour with the Tory party at that time. He was chosen for this honour, partly because he opposed a movement which aimed at giving Roman Catholics and Dissenters the right to sit in Parliament and to hold certain public offices, from which they were excluded by Acts passed in the reign of Charles II.



Sir Robert Peel, from a bust in the  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

In 1821, Peel became Home Secretary, and his close attention was thus drawn to the criminal laws, which were badly in need of reform.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century, the laws regulating the punishment of crime were very severe, and every year scores of offenders were sent to the gallows. Many of them were guilty of offences that would in our day be punished by a fine, or a short term of imprisonment. But, at that time, there were no less than 160 offences punishable by death.

A man who stole goods from a shopkeeper, or a sheep from a farmer, who picked a man's pocket, or forged a receipt, or poached for rabbits, received the same punishment as a man who committed a murder—they were hanged. This was very unjust; for it put the crime of stealing on the same level as that of taking human life.

The game laws, too, were very severe. These dealt with the preservation of deer, and game that ran wild on gentlemen's estates. Only the landowner and his friends were allowed to hunt or shoot these animals and birds. If villagers went out by night to set traps and snares to catch rabbits, hares, or game birds, they were guilty of the offence of poaching.

At the beginning of the nineteenth century there was much distress in the country districts, partly owing to the recent enclosure of open fields, by which the cottagers often lost their former rights of pasture, and partly because the new spinning machines had killed the cottage industry of spinning. Many of these cottagers and labourers had very poor wages, and hardly knew how to get enough to eat, so there was great temptation to poach. But, as late as 1816, a law was passed by which a man, caught on open ground at night with any kind of trap or snare, could be punished by being transported across the seas for seven years.

A few reformers had been trying to get these severe laws altered. But they failed, because the Government were afraid that any lessening of punishment would encourage men to commit more crimes, and the times were already far too lawless. The only reform that had been effected was that of abolishing the death penalty for pocket-picking.

When Robert Peel took up the cause of criminal reform, however, some progress was made. In a series of five acts he repealed no less than 250 old criminal laws. The number of offences punishable by death was gradually reduced until, at last, only two crimes—murder and treason—received the death penalty. In other cases, it was provided that the punishments should be of such a degree as the crime actually merited.

## PART II. RELIEF FOR DISSENTERS AND ROMAN CATHOLICS.

We have seen that Robert Peel had been elected member for Oxford University because he opposed the admission of Roman Catholics and Dissenters to Parliament and to public offices. But many men felt that these old laws of Charles II's reign were very unfair; they thought that all men, whatever their religion, should have equal rights as citizens.

As time went on, Peel himself began to change his opinion on this subject. In March, 1828, some members of Parliament urged that the Acts which excluded Dissenters should be repealed. To the surprise of many of his friends, Peel advised the Prime Minister to agree to this; and the repeal of these statutes followed.

Peel's wise action in this matter made him many enemies. Some people were very angry with him, and said, "Sooner or later, perhaps this very year, almost certainly next, the favour shown to Dissenters will be followed by similar favours to Roman Catholics." And they were right.

Since the Act of Union (1800), the people of Ireland had been sending members to the Parliament at Westminster, instead of having a separate Parliament at Dublin. But they were obliged to send Protestant members to represent them, although the greater number of the Irish were Roman Catholics.

The Irish felt that this was unfair, and a society was formed to work for reform. The Catholic Association, as the society was called, became very powerful, and was well supplied with money. Its members were pledged to allow no member of Parliament to be elected for Ireland, who was not prepared to fight for the rights of Catholics and for reform of Parliament.

A few months after the repeal of the Acts against

Dissenters, the Catholic Association succeeded in getting a well-known Irish leader, Daniel O'Connell, elected as member for County Clare. His election was quite legal, but he could not take his seat in Parliament, as he was a Roman Catholic.

Robert Peel felt that the time had come to give Roman Catholics the same rights as other men; he had the courage to announce his complete change of opinion on this question, and to give notice in the House of Commons that he would himself introduce into Parliament a Bill—the *Catholic Relief Bill*—that would give Roman Catholics the rights already given to Dissenters.



Daniel O'Connell.

As the University of Oxford was opposed to the admission of Roman Catholics, Peel resigned his seat as member for the University, but was elected for Westbury; and later he succeeded his father as member for Tamworth, representing that borough until his death.

In spite of the anger and desertion of many of his friends, and the bitter opposition of the king, Peel got the Bill passed through Parliament (1829), and persuaded the king, after much hesitation, to give his consent.

From that time Roman Catholics have had the same rights of citizenship as Protestants, except that they cannot hold the office of Lord High Chancellor, nor succeed to the throne.

## PART III. THE NEW POLICE.

In the same year, 1829, Robert Peel introduced another reform, intended to check the increasing lawlessness of London.

As far back as the thirteenth century, an Act known as the Statute of Watch and Ward had been passed for the purpose of maintaining peace and order in the city of London. Later Acts created "watch trusts;" various parishes were supposed to provide watchmen for night work; the Bow Street "runners" were employed to track criminals; and the soldiers were often called out to patrol the highways.



One of the old watchmen.

But there was no co-operation between these numerous officials. The district of St. Pancras, for instance, had no less than eighteen "watch trusts," formed under different Acts, and working quite separately. Kensington, with an area of fifteen square miles, had a police force of six men all told. St. James's, Marylebone, and Hackney had unpaid watch police who did good work, but Lambeth had no night watchman. The City had a well-managed watch, dating from the Middle Ages, but the City was the one district in London under efficient civic control. Westminster had a fairly good system of watch, but it also had "rookeries," or haunts of criminals, which the watch hardly dared enter.

The parish watchmen were often old men who spent fifty minutes of every hour in their boxes, and were of little real use, being neither strong enough, nor bold enough, to deal with desperate criminals.



Highway robbery, pocket-picking, and assault were everyday occurrences. Shoplifting was the cause of much loss to tradesmen, and life and property were often in danger. The most serious thing of all was that, in spite of the severe criminal laws, there were more criminals each year ; and it was said that there were twice as many criminals, in proportion to the population, in London as there were in England and Wales as a whole.

Peel's aim was to do away with the many, and often useless, watches, and have in their stead a body of trained men under the control of a single authority. These men, by working in shifts, would keep order day and night. The object was to *prevent crime*, and so prepare the way for less severe criminal laws.

The City was omitted from the Bill, partly because it claimed ancient privileges, and partly because its "watch and ward" was efficient. Later, however, the police of the City were organized on the same lines as the rest of the London police.

Peel's *Police Bill* was passed, and, three months later (September, 1829), a thousand of the New Police began duty in London. They wore a uniform consisting of a cut-away coat of army pattern, and a top hat with a shiny black cover. They were armed with truncheons, and carried rattles with which to summon aid when needed.

During the year 1831 the New Police arrested no less than 72,841 persons. This is a far greater number of arrests than were made in 1931, although London has a population five times as great as it was a hundred years ago.



A London Policeman or 'Peeler' in the time of George IV.

Possibly the New Police were over-zealous ; and when this could be proved, the case was used by the public and the newspapers to attack the Police Force as a whole, and the Government as well.

The New Police were very much disliked, not only by foot-pads and thieves, but also by many respectable citizens. It was said that the Police would be a danger to the ancient liberties of Britons, and might be used by the Government as a means of oppression. But more sensible men replied, " Mr. Peel's Police will take away but one liberty that we have enjoyed. That is the liberty of being robbed and knocked on the head by thieves."

In spite of much bitter opposition, the New Police proved a success. In time the same system was adopted in other large cities and towns, as well as in the counties ; and the police force is now recognized as an essential feature of our national life.

#### PART IV. THE REFORM OF PARLIAMENT (1832).

In May, 1830, on the death of his father, Peel succeeded to his father's title, and became Sir Robert Peel. At this time the country was in a state of unrest and discontent, and there was an ever increasing demand for the reform of Parliament.

There was indeed great need for reform. Hitherto the country had been ruled mainly by landowners. The heads of great families sat in the House of Lords, and also controlled the House of Commons, for they and other landowners possessed what were called " pocket boroughs ;" that is, small towns or villages of which they were landlords ; they usually managed to force their tenants to send up such members to Parliament as they (the landlords) wished.

The Duke of Norfolk had eleven of these " pocket

boroughs ;” Lord Lansdowne had nine, and was called “the cat-o’-nine-tails,” for with their votes he could threaten any Government that he did not like. It is said that, at one time during the eighteenth century, the Duke of Newcastle controlled no less than fifty “pocket boroughs,” and so also controlled that number of votes in the House of Commons.

Then there were other boroughs called “rotten boroughs,” in which there were very few voters, and these voters sold the borough to the highest bidder, who might be a landowner or a wealthy merchant. One of these so-called boroughs in Surrey contained only one house, and its owner could have sent his footman to the House of Commons, had he wished to do so. Old Sarum, on Salisbury Plain, had once been a city, but was now represented only by a few fields and a clump of trees ; the owner of the fields and trees could send two members to Westminster.

On the other hand the inhabitants of the big new *factory towns* were almost, if not entirely, without representatives in Parliament.

When a new Parliament met in 1830, there were many members who insisted on reform. The Duke of Wellington, the victor at Waterloo, was Prime Minister, and he declared that he considered reform quite unnecessary, and should oppose it. This made the duke so unpopular that the king’s state visit to London was postponed lest a public attack should be made on the minister. A few weeks later the duke and Sir Robert Peel resigned office.

In the next Parliament the first Reform Bill was introduced, but it was defeated. A second Bill passed through the House of Commons, only to be rejected by the House of Lords ; this rejection caused serious rioting

in various parts of the country. In London the mob broke the windows of the Duke of Wellington's house, and even tried to drag him from his horse, when he was riding through the City. The Birmingham men talked of refusing to pay taxes, and of marching to London 20,000 strong. Nottingham Castle was fired by the rioters, and at Bristol the Bishop's palace and the Mansion House were destroyed.

In 1832 a third Bill was passed by both Houses, and there were great rejoicings all over the country. Even the children went about shouting, "The Reform Bill is passed! The Reform Bill is passed!"

This *Great Reform Bill* (1832) took 146 seats in the House of Commons away from the "rotten" and "pocket" boroughs, controlled mainly by the landowners, and gave these seats to the counties, and to the great industrial towns such as Birmingham, Manchester, Liverpool, Leeds, and Sheffield. It also gave the vote to the *middle classes*, chiefly the town shopkeepers and country farmers—about half a million were given votes, who had not had them before.

Sir Robert Peel opposed the Reform Bill, but when it was passed, he loyally accepted the new conditions. In the first Reform Parliament, Sir Robert had barely 150 supporters out of the 600 members, but he taught his party to accept the Act cheerfully, and to try to win the support of the new electors. His party increased in numbers, and, as the Conservative party, it became as powerful in the reformed Parliament as the Tory party had been in former days.

#### PART V. THE REPEAL OF THE CORN LAWS (1846).

In 1841, four years after Queen Victoria came to the throne, Sir Robert Peel found himself at the head of a

strong Conservative Government. The pressing question at that time was the corn laws.

After the war with Napoleon, a new corn law (1815) had been passed, forbidding foreign corn to be imported until the price of English wheat reached 80s. a quarter. Now, the corn laws had been intended to protect the farmers from the importation of cheap foreign wheat, and also to encourage a plentiful home-grown supply, so that Britain might not have to depend on other countries for her bread. But her population had increased to such an extent that it was no longer possible to grow enough corn at home ; even an average harvest was insufficient, and a bad one brought distress.

At this time the poor were paying a high price for their daily bread, in order, as it seemed to them, that the farmers of England might obtain a good profit, while quantities of corn from the Baltic and the Black Sea were kept out of England by an unreasonable duty. There were riots in many parts of the country. " Bread or Blood " was the legend placed by some rioters on one of their banners.

Attempts had been made by reformers in Parliament to do away with the corn laws, but, so far, they had always failed. In 1838 the Anti-Corn-Law League was founded by Richard Cobden, and his friend John Bright. Cobden and Bright went all over the country, holding public meetings, and trying to persuade their hearers that the duties made bread dearer, and therefore kept wages higher and the making of goods more costly ; they also showed how badly paid were the farm labourers, and in what miserable hovels they often had to live.

A few years later (1845) a terrible famine occurred in Ireland. The potato crop—the peasants' food—failed owing to disease. In England, owing to a wet July,

corn was scarce. And so Bright said, "Famine, against which we had warred, joined us." Sir Robert Peel saw that there was only one remedy—corn must be imported from abroad freely. The following year (1846) he *repealed the corn laws*, and soon corn could be imported free of duty.

Many of Peel's party were angry with him, and, soon after, he resigned office. But it was said, "He lost a party, and gained a nation."

He died in 1850, as the result of injuries received when his horse shied and threw him. At the news of his death old enmities were forgotten, and, as Queen Victoria said, the country mourned over him "as over a father."

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Show what Peel did to reform the criminal laws and tell why this was necessary.
2. Give an account of Peel's New Police. What were the previous methods of keeping order in London? Why did they fail?
3. Why was there a need for parliamentary reform in the early nineteenth century? What did the first Reform Bill of 1832 accomplish?
4. What was the object of the corn laws, and why were they repealed?
5. "Famine, against which we had warred, joined us." Who said these words, and to what event do they refer?
6. It has been said that on two occasions (the passing of the Catholic Relief Bill; the Repeal of the Corn Laws) Sir Robert Peel deserted his party. What comment would you make on this assertion?

## II. SIR GEORGE GREY AND AUSTRALASIA.

### PART I. IN AUSTRALIA.

You will remember that when Lord Chatham was an old man, and was grieving over the revolt of England's colonies in America, he was brought the news that Captain Cook had discovered, and claimed for England, new lands in the Pacific. So it was that, just when she lost America, England gained Australia and New Zealand.

But, for many years, during all the time that Nelson was fighting against Napoleon, England was too busy in Europe to do much about these great lands on the other side of the world.

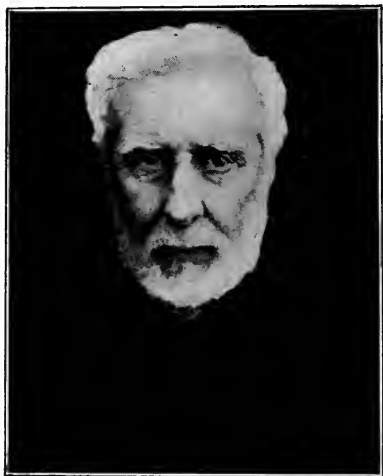
At first Australia was used only as a convict settlement, to which many adventurous wrong-doers were transported. But, later, other people began to settle and make their homes there—farmers and sheep-breeders and traders—and Australia became an important colony. Yet, in 1837, much of the country was still unexplored, and some of the settlements were not wisely governed.

It was in that year, a few days after Queen Victoria came to the throne, that a young army officer called George Grey sailed out from Plymouth Sound, bound for the great half-unknown continent.

*George Grey* was born at Lisbon. He was the son of an army officer, who, a week before George was born, had been killed in the storming of a Spanish city during the Napoleonic Wars; and George was brought up as a soldier's son, to obey orders and to think of his country before himself. When he grew up, he became a soldier like his father, and was given command of a party sent to explore the north-west of Australia.

The party met with many dangerous adventures.

They suffered from hunger and thirst, and from the great heat in the rocky sun-dried hills and ravines they had to cross. They were attacked by the black natives of Australia, and Grey was badly wounded in the hip by a spear. Once they were shipwrecked, and Grey made a



Sir George Grey.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

march of 300 miles to the town of Perth, most of the way through country that no white man had crossed before. When he got to Perth, he was so worn out and thin that his friends did not know him.

But always he showed such courage and took such good care of his followers, that when he was only twenty-nine he was made Governor of South Australia (1841).

Things were in a very bad tangle in South Australia just then. Everybody had

crowded into the one big town of Adelaide, leaving the land uncared for, and living on doles from the Government, or begging and stealing. Because no one would cultivate the land, there were no crops and no cattle, and the price of food in Adelaide was very high. So the poor were hungry, and the rich were weighed down by the heavy taxes needed to pay the doles, while the Governor, who was quite unsuited for his position, did little or nothing to improve the situation.

Matters went from bad to worse, until the ruin of the whole Colony was not far off, when, one day, Captain



George Grey walked into Government House with orders to displace the Governor, and to straighten out the difficulties if it were possible.

Now, Grey's only little son had just died, and he was very unhappy. But he had been brought up to think of his duty before his own private troubles, and he began at once to work his hardest to save South Australia.

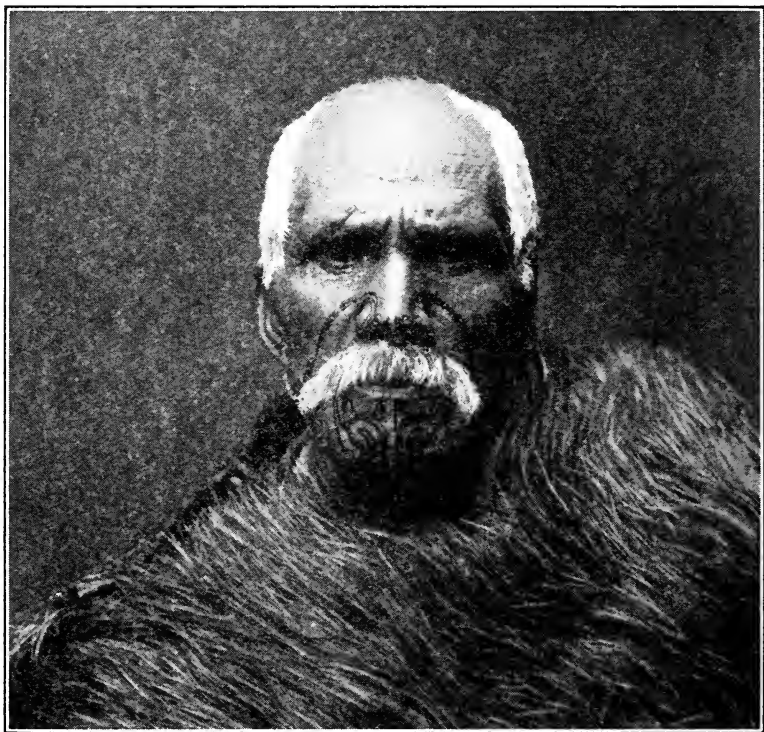
His work did not make him at all popular, and he got very little help, for a great many people liked living on the doles, or holding Government posts where they drew big salaries and did hardly any work. They were not clear-sighted or unselfish enough to see that they were ruining their State, and would one day find themselves homeless. They hated Grey for cutting down the salaries and dismissing useless men, and for making them work on the land, instead of living on doles in the town. They wrote rude rhymes about him and burnt effigies of him in the streets, but Grey took no notice whatever. He was a proud, silent man, who did what he saw was right, whether it brought him praise or blame.

He had his reward in the end, for at last he convinced the people that it was better to work than to gamble or beg. When he went to South Australia, only 2,503 acres of the land were being farmed; but, after he had been there five years, 33,292 acres were prosperous farmland. And the people had found that their lives were happier for being usefully occupied, and that their food was cheaper and better, when they spent their days in wheat-growing and sheep-breeding, than when they lived lazily in the overcrowded town.

The very men who had burnt Grey in effigy, and shouted after him in the streets, came to thank him publicly, when in 1846 he left South Australia to be Governor of New Zealand.

## PART II. GREY AND THE MAORIS.

Grey was sent to New Zealand, because there, too, were troubles to be straightened out.



A Maori Chief, with mantle of kiwi feathers.

*New Zealand Publicity Photo.*

The natives of New Zealand were a fine dark-skinned people, called the *Maoris*. At first they had been friendly with the British settlers, but as they saw their land growing more and more occupied by white men, whose ways seemed strange to them, and whose firearms they

regarded as implements of magic, they grew angry and afraid. Even those who had sold land to the white men, and signed a treaty that they would be loyal subjects of the White Queen, Victoria, wished that they had not done so ; and now all the Maoris began to band together for an attack on the white colonists.

It was a bad outlook, for there were far more Maoris than British in New Zealand at this time, and the towns of the settlers had never been fortified, as they thought the natives were friendly.

The Governor at that time was not a man of any great force of character, nor was he a good leader, and he did not know how to manage the Maoris. War broke out and some of the Maoris sacked and burnt a British settlement. When the news of this spread, more of the tribes rose, and, by the time George Grey got there, the whole country was aflame with war.

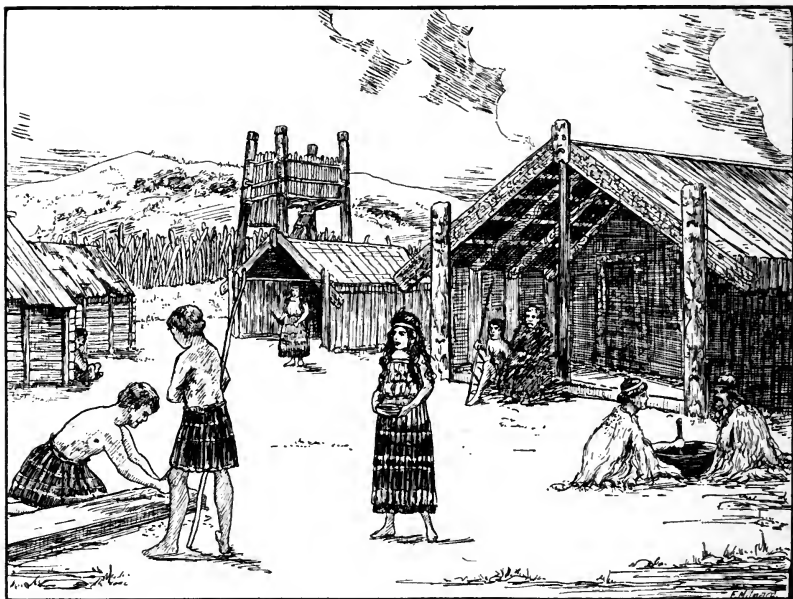
Grey did not know the Maori language, or very much about Maori ways and customs. But, in the first week, he saw more clearly what to do than the previous Governor had seen in all the years he was in New Zealand.

Grey respected the Maoris. They were daring and generous enemies, who did not hurt the white women or children, and who fought bravely against the white men. So, as brave men Grey treated them. His first move was to call boldly for all who were loyal subjects of Queen Victoria to follow him. Now, all the Maori chiefs who had signed the treaty were forced either to join Grey, or to declare themselves rebels. Many of them, seeing at once that the Governor was a fine man, joined him, while the rest gathered in a camp.

Grey then attacked the rebel camp, and a siege went on for eleven days. The Maoris showed themselves as brave as the British, but at last the camp was captured,

and the rebel Maoris scattered and fled into the dense forests.

Fighting went on in the forests for some time, and very difficult fighting it was for the British. They did not know the tracks and hiding-places of the Maoris, and

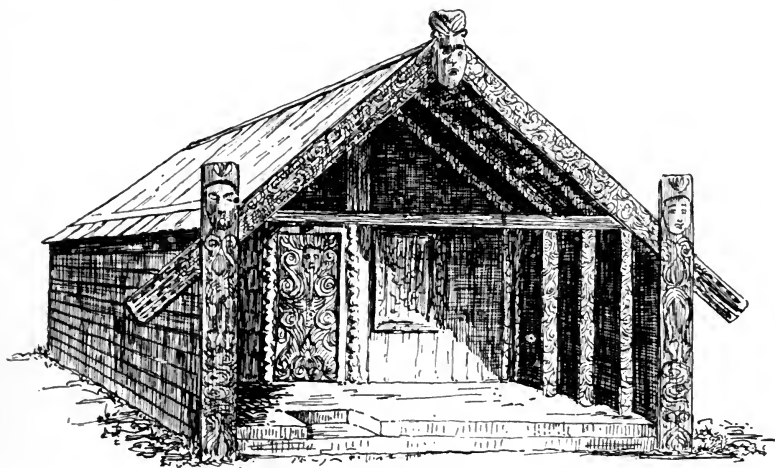


Interior of Maori *pah*, or village.

they were worn out by struggling through the thick trees and undergrowth, and across dangerous swamps and difficult hills.

Then Grey saw that it was only by making roads that the islands could really be kept at peace. So he began to have roads constructed, and he tried to win the help and trust of the Maoris. He showed great tact and judgment in this task of winning them over. There was

one old chief who was particularly stubborn, and would not allow any roadmaking in or near his lands. Grey tried several ways of persuading him, without success, and then he thought of a good plan. He sent the



A typical Maori Hut.

old chief a present of a smart pony and trap, and the chief was, of course, very pleased with this gift, but he soon found that he could not use it unless he had roads to drive along. Then he at once began to make roads as quickly as he could, which, of course, was just what Grey had hoped.

So Grey restored peace and order by his firmness and wisdom, and the Maoris learnt to honour and love him, while he, on his part, learnt a great deal about them. Later on, he wrote two books telling of their customs and beliefs, and translating some of their poems and songs. Some of these legends were very old and beautiful; for, before they settled in New Zealand, the Maoris had

wandered for hundreds of years among the lovely islands of the Pacific, and they had made up stories of gods and goddesses who lived in the sea and the sky, and walked in the forests, or rode the wind, and were friends with the birds and flowers.

But though they loved poetry and dreams, the Maoris were a warrior race and needed a strong ruler. In 1854 Grey, now Sir George Grey, for he had been knighted for his services, was made Governor of Cape Colony in South Africa, and he had not long left New Zealand when troubles began there again.

The settlers were anxious to buy land faster than the Maoris wished to sell it. Some of the white men took unfair advantage of the Maoris, who began to feel that they were being tricked and bullied, and again the tribes gathered together for war.

Their great weakness was that their chiefs quarrelled with one another, so that the tribes were not all acting together; and, realizing this, they decided to choose a Maori king to lead them all. At this dangerous moment the Governor unlawfully seized some land which the Maoris had refused to sell. He had no right to do this, and the Maoris were justly very angry. They at once began the second Maori War by seizing an English estate in revenge, and Sir George Grey was sent for to restore peace (1861).

Grey saw at once that the Government had no right to the land they had taken, and he promised the Maoris that he would give it back, if they gave back the English estate they had stolen. Then he made the one bad mistake of his career. He did not wait for the Maoris to return the English estate, but seized it before he had given them back their land, and so, for a short time, he held both. This shook the Maoris' faith in the one white man who,

as they thought, had understood and trusted them, and they refused to make peace with Grey, but sent the following gallant message.

“This is the word of the Maori: we will fight for ever, and ever, and ever, and the women will fight as well as we.” And they quoted one of their proverbs,



Business Quarter of Wellington (North Island), the Capital of New Zealand.

*New Zealand Government Publicity Photo.*

“Let us not linger on and die of old age, but let us die as does the shark, fighting to the last.”

In the wars that followed, the Maoris did not always show themselves such generous foes as they had been before. Sometimes they were quite kind to the English whom they captured, and even, on some occasions, risked their own lives to get water for their prisoners. But too often they did fierce and terrible deeds of killing and burning, and earned the name of “bloodthirsty rebels.”

At last, in 1870, after nearly ten years, peace came. A very great number of the Maoris had indeed died

“fighting to the last,” and not enough of them were left ever to rebel again. “Our race is gone like the moa,” they mourned, comparing themselves to a kind of great ostrich which had once lived in the islands.

As the Maoris grew fewer, the white men increased in number, and New Zealand grew in wealth and importance. The country had its own government, the plans for which had been drawn up by Sir George Grey, and in 1877 he was chosen to be Prime Minister. His rule was wise and good, and he made New Zealand strong and prosperous. Trust and Freedom were the cornerstones on which he built up the new State. And it grew into a fine part of the Empire, which, like Australia, sent many brave soldiers from one side of the world to the other to help England in the recent Great World War.

When he was an old man of eighty-two, Grey came back to England. He had gone away, a slim young soldier, journeying in a narrow wooden sailing ship. He returned, “the Grand Old Man of Greater Britain,” bent and white-haired, and the ship which carried him was a great steam-driven liner with reception rooms like a big hotel. He had seen great changes in the world, and helped to make many great changes himself.

Four years later (1898), he died quietly in London, justly honoured as one of the greatest Empire-builders of his day.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Who was George Grey, and what were his experiences when he was sent out to govern South Australia?
2. Who were the Maoris, and how did Grey win their trust and respect?
3. Tell the story of how Grey made a Maori chief consent to roadmaking in his part of the country.
4. Why is Grey called a great Empire-builder?



## 12. FLORENCE NIGHTINGALE (1820-1910).

## PART I. EARLY YEARS AND TRAINING.

When Sir George Grey was only a boy of eight, and before he had begun to make his great changes on the other side of the world, a little girl was born, who grew up to make changes of a different kind, but not less important, in England itself.

This girl was *Florence Nightingale*. She was born in the beautiful city of Florence in Italy, and was named after it; but her parents were English, and she was brought up in the country, in Derbyshire.

From the time she was very small, Florence showed a great interest in nursing. As a tiny girl her favourite game was having a "dolls' hospital," where she bandaged and nursed her toys very seriously and quietly. When she was a little older, she looked after sick animals. A puppy with distemper, and a collie whose paw had been hurt on the farm, grew well under her care.

Then, as she grew up, she began to visit people who were ill in the village, and they were always glad to see her; for she had a beautiful smile and a gentle touch, and knew just how to make a pillow comfortable, and how to do little things to cheer sick people up.

But when she told her parents that she wanted to become a nurse in a proper hospital, they were very much taken aback. In those days, girls of good family were very strictly brought up, and it was not considered at all the right thing for them to go out to work.

Florence had already been given greater freedom and more education than most girls, and now her mother blamed her father for having taught her Greek and mathematics. It must have been her studies, Mrs.

Nightingale thought, which gave her such unmaidenly ideas as wanting to be a nurse.

Girls (she considered) should be taught only to sing and paint and sew, and to make themselves useful in the house, and perhaps to speak a little French or Italian. Then they were content to stay quietly and properly at home, and did not get foolish longings to go and work in hospitals.



Florence Nightingale.

*National Portrait Gallery.*

Florence pointed out what a very great pity it was that gentlewomen did not work in hospitals, where so much care and gentleness were needed. She pleaded and argued until at last she got her way, and was allowed to be a nurse, though her parents did not at all approve of it.

Later she went to Germany, to a town on the Rhine, where there was a very fine hospital. Nurses were properly trained there, as no English hospital trained them at that time. They wore full black skirts and very white aprons and caps, and Florence wore this uniform and worked very hard for some months. They were happy months for her. She learnt all the best methods of nursing, and saw how a big hospital ought to be managed; and when she returned to England, she was made head of a hospital for women in London.

She soon became well-known for the splendid work she was doing at this hospital. Even her father and mother

grew to be quite proud of the fact that she was a nurse, for they knew many statesmen and important leaders of the day, and these great people had nothing but praise for Florence Nightingale.

But she had many difficulties to contend with at her hospital, as well as the illnesses of her patients. The committee which looked after the money affairs of the place did not always agree with her ideas of what was right for sick people. Some of the ladies on the committee were jealous of her for the praises she received; some of her doctors were old-fashioned in their methods, or overbearing in their manners; the nurses themselves were untrained and often unsuitable, and Florence Nightingale had to teach them and guide them.

She overcame all these difficulties with great patience and tact, and learnt to manage men and women as well as she had learnt to nurse.

## PART II. IN THE CRIMEA.

Then Britain, in alliance with France, went to war against Russia. The quarrel was about Russia's growing power in the Black Sea, which Britain thought was a danger to her sea route to India and the East. Britain and France attacked a big harbour town called Sebastopol, in the Crimea, where the Russian fleet was stationed (1854). To get to Sebastopol the Allies' troops had to cross the River Alma, and climb some heights from which the Russian guns were firing upon them. It was a terrible battle, and so many of the British and French soldiers were killed or wounded that, though they won, they could not press on to the town. All night the doctors worked, trying to dress their wounds, but there were not nearly enough doctors, and they had no nurses to help them. Then, before all the sick soldiers

had been cared for, more were wounded, and their suffering was dreadful, for the doctors could not possibly attend to them all.

When this news reached England, a call was immediately made for nurses who were willing to go out and help in the Crimea.



Scene of the Crimean War.

Florence Nightingale was one of the first to volunteer, and, because of her wide experience and fine qualities, she was chosen to be head of the little band of nurses who were sent out.

At first there were only thirty-seven of them, and when they arrived at the hospital at Scutari, opposite Constantinople, Florence

Nightingale found everything in the most terrible state.

The hospital itself, once used as barracks, was badly built and badly drained, with no proper lighting or ventilation, and everything in it was very dirty. The floors were filthy, and full of rat-holes, and the walls and ceilings stained with damp. The kitchens were choked with rubbish, and in the cheerless wards over two thousand wounded and dying men lay unwashed on dirty beds.

The Battle of Balaclava had just been fought—that battle famous for the mad heroic charge of the Light Brigade, when hundreds of lives were thrown away through a mistaken order. Hundreds more of the men had been wounded, and they lay at Scutari with their wounds still untended. There were no women nurses at all, only men called orderlies, who, sometimes, were

rough and uncouth in manner, with small knowledge of attending to sickness.

Through this terrible hospital Florence Nightingale moved quickly and quietly, dressing wounds, giving orders, and taking orders from the doctors. All day and



Florence Nightingale in the Hospital at Scutari.

*Rischgitz.*

all through the night she worked, but even so, she found time for a smile and a word of cheer as she passed from bed to bed, bringing relief from pain with her quick, clever fingers, her bandages, and medicines.

Even by next morning she had worked a wonderful change. The men were washed, and most of their wounds dressed. The worst filth had been cleared from the kitchens, and a good cook was at work. The orderlies had done something towards cleaning the wards, the nurses had straightened the beds and taken round cooling drinks.

But on the day after Florence Nightingale arrived, another great battle was fought, the battle of Inkerman, and before the place was really straight, fresh wounded were pouring into the hospital.

It was already full. Rows and rows of beds were packed together in the wards so closely that the nurses could only just pass between them. But Florence Nightingale had had the foresight to bring more beds with her from England. These were put down all along the passages for the soldiers from Inkerman, until there was over two miles of space covered by beds—and only thirty-seven nurses to look after all the wounded who lay in them!

All through the terrible Russian winter the siege of Sebastopol went on, and Florence Nightingale continued her wonderful work. She did far more than nurse. The war was very badly managed by the authorities in England. The soldiers were only half fed, their boots were broken, and their clothes in rags. Florence Nightingale got boots and shirts and many other things for them.

"I am a kind of general dealer," she wrote, "in socks, shirts, knives and forks, wooden spoons, tin baths, tables, forms, towels, and soap."

Besides the ordinary hospital food, she had jellies and arrowroot, soup, broth, and chickens cooked for the worst cases. Sometimes she even cooked them herself in the middle of all her other work.

She engaged and paid workmen to rebuild part of the hospital, and to mend the drains. She kept perfect order among all the soldiers, orderlies, and nurses under her, and she found time to answer the hundreds of letters she got from anxious mothers and wives in England about their wounded men.

The men themselves adored her. "The Lady of the Lamp" they called her, as she passed on her rounds through the night, carrying a little lantern to light her way among the low crowded beds. A smile or a word from her did many as much good as their medicine. And she gave them all courage to face the dressings and operations, which in those days—unlike our own day with its chloroform or ether—had to be done without anything to send the patient to sleep or take away the pain.

When she had made Scutari as nearly a model hospital as it was possible for it to be, she crossed the Black Sea to help in arranging the various hospitals in the Crimea. There she caught what was called "Crimea fever," and she was so tired from her work that she was very, very ill. For days it was thought that she would die, but at last she grew a little better, and was taken back to Scutari on a stretcher just like a wounded soldier.

"There was no sadder sight in all the war," said one of the soldiers, "than to see that dear lady carried up from the pier on a stretcher just the same as we men, and perhaps by some of the very fellows she had nursed herself."

Long before she was really well she was at work again. The men greeted her with cheers when she came back into the wards, and when the news of her recovery reached England the delight was as great as though there had been a big victory.

For soldiers' letters had made Florence Nightingale well known in thousands of small homes. Rough woodcuts and portraits of her hung in cottages and workshops. Big posters with rhymes in her honour were posted up in the streets and alleys. China figures were made like her, and her likeness was even stamped on tradesmen's paper bags! Hundreds of little girl babies were called

Florence after her, and ships, streets, dances, and even racehorses were named after her.

Queen Victoria herself wrote to her, and sent her a beautiful brooch made like a shield with St. George's cross and the word *Crimea* worked in diamonds on it, and engraved on the back, "To Miss Florence Nightingale, as a mark of esteem and gratitude for her devotion to the Queen's brave soldiers. From Victoria R. 1855."

### PART III. THE RETURN, AND AFTER.

At last, after two terrible years, Sebastopol was taken, and the Crimean War came to an end. Then three whole regiments wanted to go and meet Florence Nightingale, when she landed in England! Plans were made to receive her with addresses and triumphal arches, and military bands asked to be allowed to meet her and play her home, "whether she arrives by day or by night."

But Florence Nightingale was far too modest to like such a welcome. She called herself "Miss Smith" on her journey home, travelled very quietly, and slipped away into the country without anyone knowing that she had got back. She brought with her William Jones, a one-legged sailor-boy; Peter, a little Russian orphan who had been found on the battlefield at Inkerman; and a big black Crimean puppy, called Ronsch, which some soldiers had given her.

But though the war was over, Florence Nightingale's work for her country was not. A lot of money had been collected in gratitude to her, and this was known as the Nightingale Fund; with it she founded a training school for nurses.

Then she wrote two books, called *Notes on Nursing* and *Notes on the Health of the British Army*, and she worked very hard indeed to get her suggestions and plans



for good nursing and good cooking actually carried out in the hospitals and in the army.

She also had plans for enabling soldiers to spend their spare time sensibly and well. In peace time there was nowhere for them to go but to the barrack rooms in which they slept, or the public houses. Florence Nightingale suggested that they should be given reading rooms and playing fields. She did more than suggest. She got leave to build a reading room herself for Aldershot Barracks, with a canteen from which the men could get coffee and tea to drink, while they sat and read their papers or talked. This room was so popular that other barracks took up the idea, and now all regiments have their canteens.

All this work told at last on Florence Nightingale's health, which had never been very good since she had fever in the Crimea.

"I have been a prisoner in my room from illness for years," she wrote, when she was an old lady. But even in bed she worked on, writing letters and making plans for the good health and happiness of the nation.

Through her, the type of woman who took up nursing was very much improved. Nurses were now well-trained, cheerful people in neat uniforms, who were everywhere respected. Through her example, hospitals were better managed, ventilation and lighting were improved, and the patients were better fed than they had ever been before. Sick soldiers were no longer looked after by ignorant men orderlies, but by proper army nurses; and other soldiers had pleasant rooms to sit in and papers to read.

So her long busy life brought changes which did good to thousands of people, and when she died the nation wished her to be buried among other great men and women in Westminster Abbey.

But she herself had asked to be buried in the little country churchyard near her old home, and there stands a plain stone with the letters *F.N.* on it, and the dates of her birth and death.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Like Marlborough, Florence Nightingale knew when she was a child what she wanted to be. How did she manage to achieve her ambition?
2. Tell how the Crimean War gave Florence Nightingale her great chance.
3. Imagine that you are a wounded soldier, lying sick in the hospital at Scutari. Write a letter home, telling of the change that Miss Florence Nightingale's coming has brought to you, and to all the other patients.
4. What did Florence Nightingale do for the betterment of soldiers' lives and those of other people, when the Crimean War was over?

### 13. THE AGE OF GLADSTONE AND DISRAELI.

#### PART I. GLADSTONE (1809-1898).

The two leading statesmen of the latter part of the nineteenth century were William Ewart Gladstone and Benjamin Disraeli. Both were men of great talent, not only as statesmen, but also as writers.

William Ewart Gladstone was born at Liverpool in 1809. His father was a merchant, but his ancestors had owned property in Lanarkshire, and had been known as Gledstones. He was educated at Eton and Oxford. He was a hard-working student, and his college career was brilliant. He wished to be a clergyman, but his father wanted him to go into Parliament.

While at Oxford, he took part in the students' debates.

The son of the Duke of Newcastle heard his speech against the Reform Bill, and praised him to the duke. When Parliament dissolved after the passing of the Reform Bill, the duke was looking for a man to represent his "pocket borough" of Newark. He had always boasted that he could "do what he liked with his own." But his right had been disputed in the election of 1831, when a Radical lawyer had defeated the duke's Tory candidate for Newark. The duke's son suggested that young Gladstone should be asked to stand for the borough; the invitation was given and accepted.

Some of the electors were inclined to treat the young student as a mere schoolboy, but his rival said of him, "There is a great future before that young man." Gladstone's hard work and good speeches won the day, and he took his seat in the first reformed Parliament.

Sir Robert Peel was struck with Gladstone's first speech in the House of Commons, and took a great interest in the young man. When Peel was in power in 1841, he appointed Gladstone vice-president of the Board of Trade. In after years Gladstone confessed that he was rather disappointed. He rather hoped to become Secretary for Ireland. "I said to myself," he wrote, "that the science of politics deals with the government of men, but I am set to govern packages." He



William Ewart Gladstone.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

learned, however, that "packages" were very important in the government of men.

Among his other duties, he had to deal with people who came with complaints or suggestions in connection with trade and industry. Among these he always recalled "a person in black or dark Quaker costume . . . rather fierce, but very strong and very earnest." This was John Bright, the friend of Cobden, and the opponent of the corn laws, who entered Parliament soon afterwards.

Gladstone was Prime Minister from 1868 to 1874; and during that period of office, and three later ones, the Government under his leadership made many reforms. He was always greatly interested in Ireland, and tried in his later days to give her Home Rule.

## PART II. DISRAELI (1804-81).

Benjamin Disraeli, Gladstone's rival in the House of Commons, was the grandson of an Italian Jew who had settled in London during the eighteenth century, and made a fortune. Disraeli's father was a dreamy, studious man who spent his time in reading and writing books. The boy went to a small private school at Blackheath until he was twelve, and was then sent to a well-known school at Walthamstow, but his Jewish name and foreign appearance made him unpopular with his schoolfellows; he soon left, and finished his education at home.

When he was seventeen, he started work in a lawyer's office, and, later on, studied to become a barrister. But, like his father, he loved books, and he soon gave up the law and began to write novels.

Amusing stories are told of the young novelist. He let his hair grow long, loved brightly coloured clothes, and wore rings outside his gloves. A gentleman, who met him at a dinner party, says, "He wore green velvet

trousers, low shoes, silver buckles, lace at his wrists, and his hair in ringlets." On another occasion, we are told, he wore a black velvet cloak lined with satin, purple trousers, with gold bands down the outside seams, and a scarlet waistcoat.

In November, 1837, the year in which Victoria became Queen, Disraeli entered the House of Commons as Tory member for Maidstone. He made his first speech in the House a few weeks later; it was in a debate on Irish affairs, and it followed a speech by O'Connell. The new member's dress was somewhat extraordinary; he wore a bottle-green frock coat and white waistcoat, no collar, and an unusual display of gold chain. His speech was received by the

Irish and the Liberals with shouts of laughter, which the cheers of his own party could not silence. At last, finding he would not get a hearing, Disraeli exclaimed in a loud and remarkable voice, which surprised the noisiest of his opponents, "I will sit down now, but the time will come when you *will* hear me!"

When Sir Robert Peel found himself bound to repeal the corn laws, Disraeli was among the Tories who opposed their leader's action. His speeches were as brilliant as they were bitter, and within a few years he became Tory leader in the House of Commons.



Benjamin Disraeli, Lord Beaconsfield.  
*National Portrait Gallery.*

Disraeli was Prime Minister several times, and during his terms of office some important events took place. He succeeded in passing a second *Reform Bill* (1867), which gave the vote to *artisans*. He advised Queen Victoria to take the title "Empress of India." He also bought a large number of Suez Canal shares for England, and thus safeguarded our road to India.

In 1876 Disraeli became Lord Beaconsfield and entered the House of Lords.

### PART III. THE STORY OF IRELAND.

The English sovereign had been Lord of Ireland since King John's time, and in the seventeenth century the north-east of the island—Ulster—had been colonized by settlers from England and Scotland. So the people of Ireland were divided. The greater part of the country was inhabited by the Irish, who had remained Catholics when England and Scotland had become Protestant in the sixteenth century; but the people of Ulster, in the north-east, were descendants of the English and Scottish settlers, and were Protestants.

After the Revolution of 1688, when the Irish supported James II against William of Orange, attempts were made to subdue Catholic Ireland. The Catholics came to terms with William, and, in the Treaty of Limerick, it was agreed that they should enjoy the same liberties as under Charles II. But the Irish Parliament was Protestant, and refused to carry out the treaty; on the contrary, a series of penal laws was enacted against the Catholics, excluding them from all offices, not allowing them to be soldiers, schoolmasters, barristers, or even gamekeepers, or to possess a horse worth more than five pounds, and even forbidding them to have steeples or bells for their

chapels. No wonder that they never forgot the "Broken Treaty" of Limerick.

Later, when the Irish heard that the American colonists had won their independence (1783), and that the people of France were fighting for their liberty (1789), they became more discontented than ever, and some of their leaders determined to break off all connection with Britain. A rising took place (1798), and a French force landed to help the Irish rebels. At Castlebar, in County Mayo, the French and Irish defeated a force of militiamen and yeomanry, who ran away so quickly that the skirmish was called the "Race of Castlebar"! But the rising was soon put down, and the leaders hanged.

Then Pitt thought the wisest plan would be to do away with the Irish Parliament that sat in Dublin, and let the Irish members sit in the Parliament at Westminster. The *Act of Union* (1800) was passed, and England and Ireland came under one Parliament. The name of our country was changed to the "United Kingdom of Great Britain and Ireland," and its flag became the *Union Jack*, formed by combining England's cross of St. George with St. Andrew's cross of Scotland, and St. Patrick's cross of Ireland.

Pitt had intended that the *Catholic* Irish should be allowed to send members to Parliament; but George III would not agree to this. So the Irish were still discontented. The Catholics had no share in the government, and they had to pay tithes to the English Church, to which they did not belong. But there was another great and genuine grievance, the system of landholding.

A great number of the large landowners were Protestants, and many of them did not live in Ireland; moreover, under the Irish system the landlords did not provide buildings, fences, and gates, as English land-

lords do. When the tenants did things to improve their farms, they often found their rents raised in consequence.

After the Potato Famine\* the population of Ireland was only four millions—about half what it had been before the “Black Year” of the failure of the potato crop (1845). Many of the peasants had starved ; large numbers had emigrated to America. The Government tried to help the peasants by making the sale of land easier ; but this failed, because the land, instead of passing into the hands of small holders, was sold, for the most part, to a new class of landlords who turned out the small tenants, and converted their holdings into pasture farms which were managed by bailiffs.

When, in 1868, Gladstone was asked by Queen Victoria to become Prime Minister, he said to a friend, “My mission is to pacify Ireland ;” and he tried to do this by removing two grievances. He passed a Land Act (1870) that protected the tenants from being turned out of their holdings without just cause, and secured some compensation for tenants who had improved their farms. He also introduced and carried through a Bill to disestablish the Protestant Church in Ireland, so that the Irish Catholics were no longer forced to pay tithes to a church to which they did not belong.

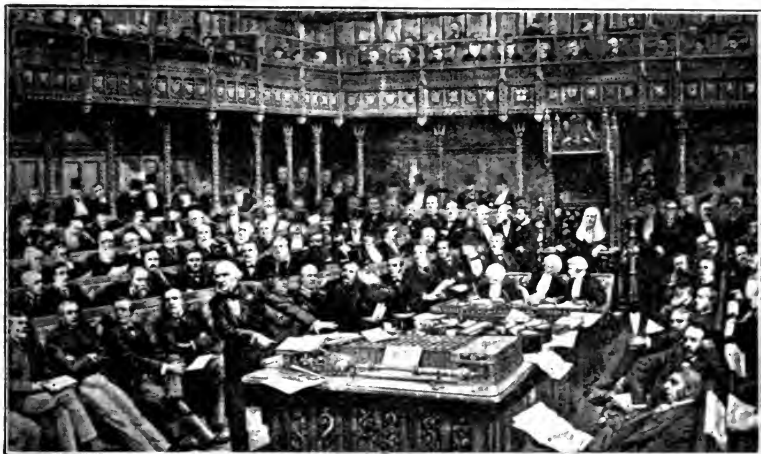
But Ireland was not pacified, and the Land League was formed to demand further reforms. Among other means of making their power felt, the members of the league refused to work for, or indeed to have any dealings whatever with, persons who opposed the league, or who took farms of evicted tenants. Such refusal was called “boycotting,” from an Irish landlord’s agent, named Captain Boycott, who was the first victim.

\* See the Chapter on Robert Peel.



Other Land Acts were passed (1881-1903), and the final result has been to help the Irish peasants to buy out the landlords, and to become the owners of their own farms.

Meanwhile, the Irish outside Ulster continued to demand *Home Rule*, that is, they wanted a Parliament of



Gladstone speaking in the House of Commons during a debate on the Home Rule Bill.

E.N.A.

their own in which to settle their own affairs. A new leader, Charles Stewart Parnell, encouraged the Irish in their demands, and discontent and disorder were rife. In 1882, Lord Frederick Cavendish, the Chief Secretary for Ireland, and Mr. Thomas Burke, the Under-Secretary, were murdered, whilst taking a walk in Phoenix Park, Dublin; and, in 1883 and 1884, dynamiters, mostly Irish-Americans, were active in Great Britain.

Then Gladstone came to the conclusion that nothing short of Home Rule would pacify Ireland (1886), and, on more than one occasion, he brought in a Home

Rule Bill, which, however, did not pass through Parliament. This question divided the British people and their Parliament for many years.

Later, the Liberals brought in another Home Rule Bill (1912). The Protestant parts of Ulster, however, insisted on remaining united to Great Britain, and Ireland seemed on the verge of civil war. Then the Great War suddenly broke out (1914).

During the Great War, an extreme party known as Sinn Fein (Irish for "we ourselves") tried to win entire independence for Ireland, and a rebellion took place (1916). Rebellions continued after the War (1919-1921). Eventually, it was decided to divide Ireland. The south of Ireland, constituting the *Irish Free State*, became a Dominion (1920), with its own Parliament. But six counties of *Northern Ireland*, while they have their own Parliament for local affairs, still remain one with Great Britain, the people paying the same taxes as Englishmen and Scots, and sending members to the British Parliament.

#### PART IV. EDUCATION AND THE REFORM OF PARLIAMENT.

Perhaps the greatest reform that took place under Gladstone's leadership was the *Elementary Education Act* of 1870.

The work of elementary education had, up to that time, been left to societies associated with religious bodies, and to private people. The Government had already made grants to two societies, but there were still numbers of people who could neither read nor write, and there were many districts without proper schools.

By the Education Act of 1870, parents were obliged to send their children to school up to the age of thirteen; and "School Boards" were elected to build schools in districts where there were none, and to see that they were

properly conducted. Fifteen years after the Act the numbers attending elementary schools had increased threefold.

At first, the parents had to pay a small fee weekly for the education of their children, but later (1891) education in elementary schools became free.



A "Dame" School. From a picture by T. Webster in the Vernon Collection.

*Mansell.*

Many changes have taken place in our school systems since 1870. Over thirty years later (1902), a great system of secondary schools was created. A few years later (1907), the School Medical Service was begun, which has since done great good for the health of the children.

To-day, as we know, children must stay at school till they are fourteen, and they are given the opportunity of obtaining scholarships which take them through secondary schools to the universities.

The first Reform Act (1832) had given the farmers and shopkeepers the right to vote; but still the great mass of working-men in town and country had no vote.

Gladstone failed to get a Reform Bill passed in

1866 ; but, in the following year, Disraeli brought in a Bill which he called " a leap in the dark." This second Reform Act (1867) gave the vote to the great mass of artisans living in the towns.

The spread of education as a result of the 1870 Act made it possible for the privilege of voting to be still further extended. A third *Reform Act* (1884) gave the vote to *farm labourers*, and so, by this time, all qualified male citizens had gained the privilege.

#### PART V. TOWN AND COUNTY COUNCILS (1835 ; 1888).

While the Reform Acts had been giving British citizens a voice in *national* government, other important Acts had been altering the methods of *local* government.

Up to 1835 the boroughs had been governed by the corporation, that is, the mayor and aldermen, elected by the " freemen " of the borough ; and as these " freemen " were often but a small proportion of the people, the greater number of citizens had very little to say in the affairs of their own town.

So the reformed Parliament passed the Municipal Corporations Act (1835). By this reform, *Town Councillors* were in future to be elected by all the ratepayers of a town, and were made answerable to the citizens for their management of the business of the boroughs.

In the counties, public affairs had been largely in the hands of the magistrates known as Justices of the Peace. But in 1888, a law was passed by which each county was to elect a County Council to manage the affairs of the county. Later on District Councils and Parish Councils were also started.

All these local Councils do most useful work. The County Councils look after the roads and bridges ; they superintend the county police force ; they provide

asylums ; they look after the poor ; they make provision for the education of the children ; and they watch over the health of the district. To understand how much the local Councils have done, we have only to read accounts of towns and villages a hundred years ago. Then people were often obliged to live in wretchedly damp and filthy cottages, without proper drains or water ; roads were neglected ; and there were no police to keep order.

The Councils, of course, need money to do all these things ; they get this money by means of *rates* paid by the people in the district, and they are assisted by grants from the national Government.

But, as many of us know, whether we live in town or village, there is still much to be done in clearing away slums, and in other ways.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Write a few lines about (a) Gladstone, (b) Disraeli.
2. Outline the story of Ireland from 1688 to the present day. What was Gladstone's policy ?
3. Show why the following were important :—
  - (a) The Education Act of 1870.
  - (b) The three Reform Acts (1832, 1867, 1884).
  - (c) The Acts improving Town Councils and setting up County Councils.
4. Tell what your Town Council or your County Council has done to improve the life of the people. What other improvements do you think might be made ?

## 14. CECIL RHODES AND SOUTH AFRICA (1853-1902).

### PART I.

To-day there are liners like floating hotels which will take you from England to India in about three weeks. But before Ferdinand de Lesseps cut the Suez Canal



Cecil Rhodes.

(1869), or James Watt adapted his famous steam-engines to "marine use," ships of a very different kind went under sail all round Africa to India, and often took many months about it. There was no way of keeping food fresh on those early merchantmen, as it is kept now in ice boxes, and their crews suffered terribly from the disease of scurvy. Hundreds of sailors died at sea

from this horrible illness, which comes from bad feeding. At last the Dutch, who were the very earliest trade rivals of the British in India, hit on a plan to improve matters.

In 1652 they sent a number of farmers out to settle in Africa round the *Cape of Good Hope*. There a great market garden was cultivated, to supply Dutch ships with the green vegetables that were needed to ward off scurvy on the long voyage from Europe to the East. This was the first settling of white men in the south of the mysterious "Dark Continent," where two hundred years later Cecil Rhodes played his important part. In those two centuries a great deal happened, as we shall see by the state of things which he found when he went out there.

The Rhodes family lived in Hertfordshire, where Cecil's father was vicar of the quiet little town of Bishop Stortford. There Cecil was born in 1853, the year before Florence Nightingale went out to the Crimea. Cecil's father, the vicar, was a remarkable man. He was wealthy, generous, and easy-going, and he preached very short sermons which were well worth listening to. He sent his elder sons to Winchester and Eton, but Cecil, the fifth boy, was educated at home. His father soon realized that Cecil was not going to grow up the kind of man who would fit well into professional life in England. Herbert, the eldest brother, had already gone out to Natal and started a cotton farm, and at seventeen Cecil was allowed to join him.

The brothers were very good friends, and both had a great love of adventure. But while Herbert was restless, and more fond of shooting and exploring than of work, Cecil was hard-headed and persevering, and believed that work led to the greatest adventure of all, the adventure of power. So, within a year, the management of the Natal cotton farm fell entirely into the hands of young Cecil, while Herbert wandered off in search of game to shoot.

Cecil, at eighteen, studied not only his crops, his workmen, his markets, and all the business of his farm, but also the bigger problems of the country he had come to live in. Natal, where his farm was, belonged to Britain, and so now did Cape Colony, which the British had captured from the Dutch during the wars against Napoleon.

But a great number of the Dutch farmers, or *Boers*, as they were called, whose families had been at the Cape since the earliest days of the settlement, had disliked being under British rule. They disagreed with the British about many things, particularly about the treat-

ment of the native tribes. For the Boers thought the way the British treated natives was far too kindly, and in 1833, when the British freed all the slaves in the Empire, the Boers had grown very discontented indeed. Three years later many of them had left Cape Colony, taking their wives and families, their rifles and their Bibles, their herds and all their goods, and had travelled slowly northwards in their heavy covered ox-wagons, to find new homes. This was called the *Great Trek*.

## PART II. EMPIRE BUILDING.

So, when Cecil Rhodes on his cotton farm sat in the evenings studying the map of Africa, he saw to the north of British Cape Colony two new Boer Republics, the Orange Free State and the Transvaal, which had been established after the Trek, and beyond them lay Portuguese East Africa. Portugal also owned Angola on the west; so the problems of South Africa concerned the British Empire, the Boer Republics, the Natives and the Portuguese; and very soon other European nations stepped in to complicate matters.

For in 1871 diamonds were found at Kimberley. A child, playing one day on his father's farm, picked up a shiny pebble which he kept as a toy. Some time after, a trader visiting the farm saw the child playing with it, and asked to look at it. The child's toy turned out to be a wonderful diamond, worth many thousands of pounds; and when the field where it had been found was searched, the great mines were discovered which changed the whole history of South Africa.

One of the first men to rush to the diamond fields was Herbert Rhodes, always on the look-out for new excitement. He staked a claim, but he did very little to work it. Before the end of the year, however, Cecil



Rhodes followed him, and he soon took over his brother's diggings, and began to work them very hard indeed.

"The New Rush," as Kimberley was called in 1872, was an assemblage of rubbish heaps and tents, wagons and native huts, all huddled together in utter disorder on a great bare plain or veld. There the seam of blue clay ran, in which the diamonds were found, and there Cecil Rhodes lived for nearly ten years.

When he went, he was described as "a tall fair boy, blue-eyed and somewhat sharp-featured, wearing the flannels of the school playing-field, shrunken with many washings, and stained with the red veld dust." When he left, he was a man of power and of great wealth. Yet he had managed to make seven journeys to England to study at Oxford, though, it must be confessed, he spent more of his time there in rowing, playing polo, and hunting, than in study. He was also master of the Oxford draghounds, and he annoyed his neighbours by practising the horn in the middle of the night.

But at Kimberley he was slowly and surely buying up and uniting small claims, draining the mine workings, and bringing in better machinery, so that by 1887 he was one of the two most important men in the diamond fields. His great rival was "Barney" (Barnett) Barnato. Since the early days they had struggled against each other, but at last Rhodes managed to buy so many shares in his rival's company that he was able to force Barnato to join him. In 1888 they formed a great company together to work the whole of the Kimberley mines; but the man who was really head of the company was Rhodes.

Long before this struggle was over, however, Rhodes had been working towards another thing far dearer to him. Once, so one of his Kimberley friends tells us, "he suddenly put his hand over a great piece of No Man's

Africa on the map, and said, 'Look here; all that British—that is my dream.'" But since the finding of diamonds had drawn Europe's attention to the "Dark Continent," other nations, too, had the same dream. Germany and Belgium had claimed vast colonies, and Portugal was trying to enlarge her frontiers so that her lands in the west and east should be joined. So, as Rhodes himself said, "What's the earthly use of having ideas, if you haven't the money to carry them out?"

Yet, even before he had the money he had done much. In 1880 he was made a member of the Cape Parliament. Two years later he helped to put down a great rising in Basutoland, and the following year he stopped the Boers from setting up two new republics on the route from Kimberley to the north. He did this not by armed force, but by travelling to see the Boer leader, and, simply through force of character, persuading him to accept British rule.

Rhodes really wanted the British to unite with the Boers; his ideal was a South African people under the British flag, with "equal rights for every civilized man south of the Zambezi."

Now, in his opinion, "whatever State possesses Bechuanaland and Matabeleland will possess South Africa." And as Britain already ruled Bechuanaland, in 1888 he set out to make Matabeleland part of the Empire.

He had first to persuade Barnato, his partner in the diamond mines, to allow him to use the profits of the Company as he liked. After many hours of talking, Barnato agreed.

"Some men," he said, "have a fancy for one thing, and some for another; you have a fancy for making an Empire, and I suppose we must let you have your way."

Then Rhodes went to London, and, after countless

difficulties, got a Royal Charter allowing him to form the *British South Africa Company*. Through this he hoped to do for South Africa what the old East India Company had done for India. It was a good moment to begin, for a great conference (1884) had just been held in Berlin to discuss the claims of the European powers in Africa, and Englishmen were all interested in the "Dark Continent," and in Rhodes's plans.



Lobengula.

So Rhodes began at last to make his dreams a reality. The Matabele natives were tribes of fighting men and hunters, fierce cousins of the Zulus who had fought bravely against the British in earlier days. Their chief, Lobengula, was a great warrior and a very fine man. Even "a costume of four yards of blue calico round his shoulders, and a string of tigers' tails round his waist, could not make his imposing figure ridiculous . . . . He was every inch a ruler."

He was, indeed, something of a tyrant to his people, but he was not cruel to Europeans. He received kindly the messengers sent by Rhodes, though for some months he would not listen to their proposals. But he allowed them to travel with him on his visits to his *indunas*, the headmen in the different districts of his wide kingdom, and at last they persuaded him to sign a treaty. This treaty gave Rhodes's Company full rights to look for minerals and work mines in Lobengula's country. In return they agreed to give him money, rifles, ammunition, and—his greatest fancy—an armoured steamboat.

When the messengers returned with this news, an expedition was at once got ready. In 1890 they set out, a column of nearly a thousand men, and marched through

four hundred miles of trackless country, to where the town of Salisbury now stands. There they hoisted the British flag and began their work.



A Matabele Warrior

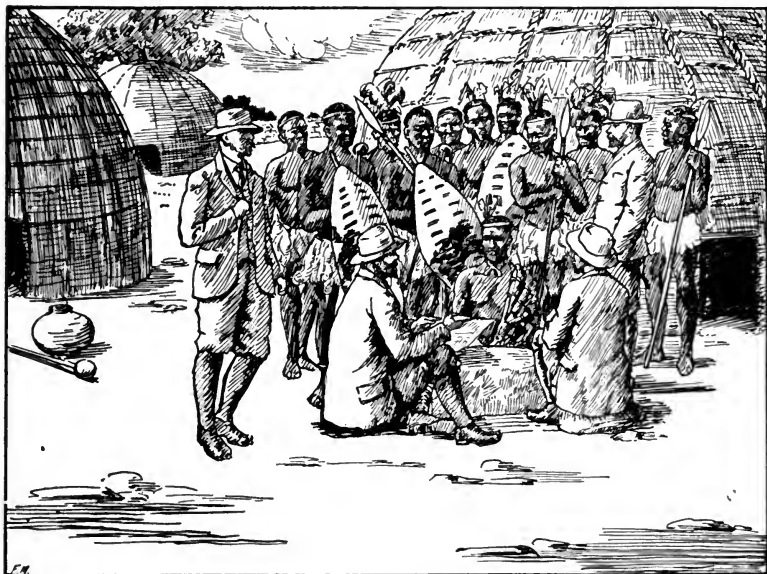
(From a photograph kindly lent by the High Commissioner for Southern Rhodesia).

Rhodes himself had not been able to go with them, for in the same year he had been made Prime Minister of Cape Colony. Also he had to look after the Kimberley diamond fields, and the gold mines in the Transvaal, for it was the money from these which made the scheme possible.

So the march was led by two of his friends, Dr.

Jameson, who had lived with him at Kimberley, and Mr. Frederick Selous, a famous big-game hunter.

In accordance with Rhodes's orders, telegraph wires soon sprang up in the wake of the explorers, and a railway, built as far as Beira, was opened in 1893. But then trouble arose with the natives.



Lobengula signing the concession for the Commissioners sent by Cecil Rhodes.

Though Lobengula himself was still friendly to the British, he could no longer control his young warriors. Their repeated raids on the British camps at last drove the Chartered Company to war in the autumn of 1893.

There were only about nine hundred white men and many thousand Matabeles; but the whites had machine guns. Against these the black warriors, who fought

naked with spears called assegais, threw away their lives in reckless bravery ; but after two such battles they broke and fled.

### PART III. THE UNION OF SOUTH AFRICA.

Lobengula himself was never heard of again, and in 1894 the Chartered Company took over the whole of Matabeleland. Two years later it was renamed *Rhodesia*. This was the land in which, thirty years before, David Livingstone, the famous missionary-explorer, had shot lions and preached the Gospel.

So the beginning of 1895 saw Rhodes at the height of his triumphs. He had added to the Empire a country which was named after himself, and which was bigger than the whole United Kingdom ; he was Prime Minister of Cape Colony, and the richest and most powerful man in South Africa. Yet the end of the year saw his power broken beyond repair. To understand what happened we must go back to the Boers.

In 1881 the Boers of the Transvaal had risen against British rule, and the first Boer War had been fought. The Boers won, and for two years there was peace. Then in 1883 gold was discovered in the Transvaal. At once men of all nations rushed to the mines in great numbers, as they had before to the diamond fields. The Boers did not like having all these *uitlanders* (outlanders, or foreigners) as they called them, in their country. They themselves were peaceful farming people, while the gold-seekers were often wild, lawless men, and the Boer President, Paul Kruger, did everything he could to prevent their getting a lasting foothold in his republic.

He stopped the Cape Railway at his frontier, closed the "drifts" or fords over the River Vaal, heavily taxed the foreigners already in the country, and made it as

difficult as he could for them to trade. The *uitlanders* grew more and more angry, and at last plotted an armed rebellion. Rhodes's great friend, Jameson, was to help them. In December, 1895, he made a raid over the border with a column of six hundred horsemen, intending to help the *uitlanders* to overthrow the Boer Government, and proclaim British rule.

But his plans miscarried. The *uitlanders* were not ready for him, no rising took place, and after four days Jameson's column was surrounded, outnumbered, and captured, and the whole rebellion came to an end.

How much Rhodes knew about this raid, and whether or not he had agreed to it as a short cut to his dreams of British Africa, is not known. But everyone did know that he was Jameson's friend, and the Boers blamed him for the whole thing. They turned from him in bitterness and distrust, though he had often fought their battles for them in Parliament, working on his old motto of "Equal rights for every civilized man south of the Zambezi."

The British, too, and indeed all Europe, blamed Rhodes for making enemies of the Boers by unlawfully invading their Republic. Rhodes at once resigned his office as Prime Minister, and went to London to be present at the Government inquiry into his part in the raid. He admitted that he had allowed troops to be moved near the Transvaal border, believing that a show



Dr. Jameson.

of force would help the *uitlanders*. But he denied that he had ever given orders for Jameson to go across the border.

Meanwhile Jameson's action was having equally bad results in Rhodesia. Practically all armed forces had been taken away from there, and sent to the borders of the Transvaal, and the Matabele natives seized the opportunity to rise. A British general was sent against them at the head of an army of colonists and regular troops. He broke up the native hordes, but the chiefs scattered to their fortresses in the Matoppo hills, where the general found it impossible to follow them. Matters were at a deadlock when Rhodes came back from London.

He went unarmed with only two companions, pitched his tents at the foot of the hills, and invited the chiefs to come down and discuss their grievances. For six weeks there was no reply. Then, one by one, the chiefs drifted into his little camp, squatted in the dust with the sun beaming on their black skins and broad spears, laughed at his jokes, and gradually gained confidence, until at last he was able to hold a solemn council meeting, at which all the Matabele chiefs were present.

There Rhodes faced them and talked with such effect that it was arranged they should all become salaried officials of his Company, responsible for keeping their warriors in order; and they shouted and cheered him, and gave him a native name which meant "the Separator of the Fighting Bulls."

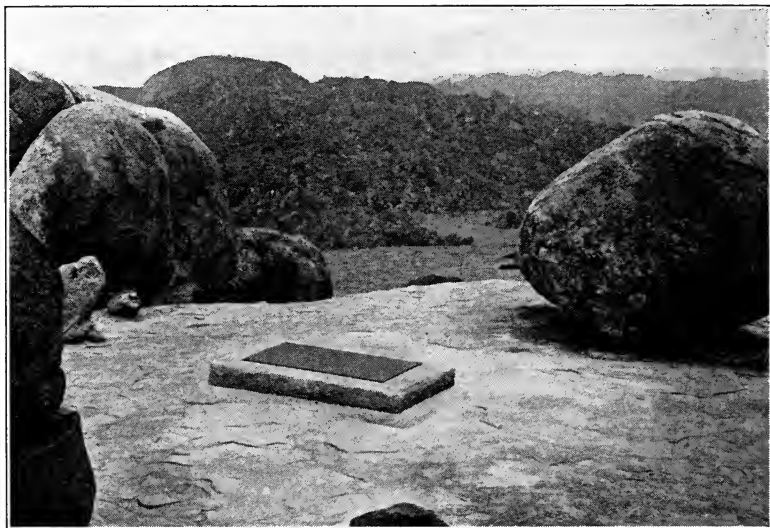
After this, Rhodes had to go back again to London to face a very different gathering, the members of the Committees which had sat in London and in Cape Town to go into the matter of Jameson's Raid. They rebuked his conduct, and he could not, of course, hold high office any more in Africa. Many Englishmen, however,





still respected him, and on his return to Cape Town he was met by cheering crowds.

Yet the bad results of the Jameson Raid were not over, and in 1899 the second Boer War broke out. This was a far more serious war than the one fought in 1881. At first the British were badly defeated, and one force



Tomb of Cecil Rhodes, in the Matoppo Hills.

*By courtesy of the High Commissioner of Southern Rhodesia.*

was shut in and besieged by the Boers in Ladysmith, another in Kimberley, and a third in Mafeking. Then a desperate call was sent to Britain for volunteers. Men came forward from all parts of the country, and, in fact, of the Empire, and Lord Roberts and Lord Kitchener went out to take command. The three starving towns were retaken amid great rejoicings in England, the Orange Free State fell into British hands, and President Kruger,

who had bravely defended his republic, was forced to leave the Transvaal, and go to Holland.

But for nearly two years the Boers courageously fought on against Kitchener under an able and daring leader called De Wet. At length, in 1902, peace was made, and the two Boer Republics became part of the British Empire. Four years later, the Boers were given self-government, and at last, in 1909, the colonies of the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, and the Orange Free State were joined together in the *Union of South Africa*.

Unhappily Rhodes did not live to see this. He had suffered from heart weakness all through his crowded life, and he became rapidly worse after his fall from power. In March, 1902, after a year of great pain, he died without seeing his dream of Union come true. He was buried in the Matoppos Hills, in a place he had chosen himself, looking out over the wide land he had won for Britain, and on the simple stone over his grave are carved the following words :—

Cecil Rhodes : He loved and served South Africa.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Tell how it was that there were Dutch in South Africa before the English went there.
2. How did it happen that Cecil Rhodes was sent to South Africa ?
3. Tell of the finding of diamonds at Kimberley.
4. Draw a map of South Africa, and mark on it Kimberley, the Cape of Good Hope, Natal, the Transvaal, the Zambezi, and Matabeleland.
5. Who was Lobengula ? Tell his story.
6. Give a concise account of Cecil Rhodes's South African policy.
7. Tell how Rhodes came to be called the "Separator of the Fighting Bulls."

8. What was the end of the South African War, and how far have Rhodes's hopes for South Africa become actual fact?

9. Try to tell the story of South Africa from the point of view of the Boers, and show how President Kruger struggled for his people.

### 13. LORD KITCHENER, AND THE GREAT WAR (1850-1916).

#### PART I. EGYPT.

Kitchener, as we saw in the last narrative, was one of the commanders in South Africa during the second Boer War. He was then Baron Kitchener of Khartoum, but he began his career as plain Herbert Kitchener, and he had already had many adventures before the Boer War began.

He was born in Ireland, in County Kerry, and the earliest of all his adventures were in connection with birds'-nesting and bathing, riding and shooting.

When he was quite a boy he decided to be a soldier, and at eighteen he went to the Royal Military Academy at Woolwich, to learn his chosen profession. There he spent three busy, happy years, and at the end of that time passed his examinations and became a second lieutenant in the Royal Engineers (1871).

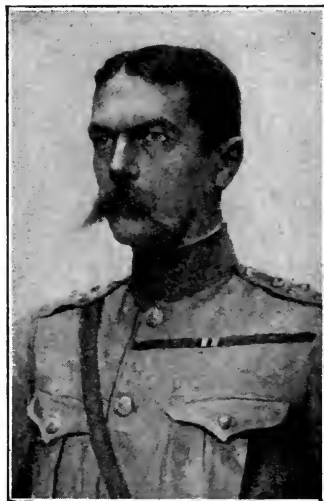
Britain was not then at war, but young Kitchener's regiment did not remain in England. It was sent out to the island of Cyprus, and then to Palestine, where the engineers were engaged in surveying, that is, they were measuring heights and distances, and getting together all the material needed for a map of the country.

After this work Kitchener was sent to *Egypt*, which was then in a very troubled state.

The ruler of Egypt, who was called the Khedive, had

become very rich through growing cotton, but as he became rich he became also very greedy. He wanted more and more land, and at last he took a great country south of Egypt called the *Sudan*, which is twice as big as France and Germany put together.

But when he had got this great country, the Khedive ruled it very badly indeed. He was very cruel to the people, and he took all their money to spend on the follies of his own court. One of his princesses alone bought £150,000 worth of clothes from a French dressmaker! Things could not go on for many years at that rate. The Khedive got Egypt very much into debt, and England and France had to interfere. The throne was taken from the Khedive, and an Englishman and a Frenchman were appointed to advise his successor.



Sir Herbert (afterwards Earl) Kitchener, at the time of the Sudan campaign.

National Portrait Gallery.

The Englishman was Sir Evelyn Baring, afterwards Lord Cromer, who is sometimes called "the maker of modern Egypt." This is because he was the Khedive's adviser for twenty-five years, and during those years Egypt was changed from a poor, misruled country with barren fields and a miserable uneducated people, into a rich orderly nation with properly cultivated fields and a busier, much happier people.

Naturally Sir Evelyn Baring had other men to help him in carrying out this great work, which, unfortunately,

could not all be done without war. One of his greatest helpers was Kitchener.

Kitchener, being a soldier, of course helped Sir Evelyn Baring through the army. Many of the Egyptian officers had been bad men and poor leaders, who gave foolish orders to their troops, and inflicted cruel punishments. When the Khedive was changed, some of these unworthy officers were displaced also, and Englishmen put in their places. Kitchener was one of them.

When he joined the Egyptian army, he found that the soldiers were not getting enough to eat, and that their uniforms were poor and dirty, and their boots broken. Some had no proper arms either, and they were not well trained or drilled.

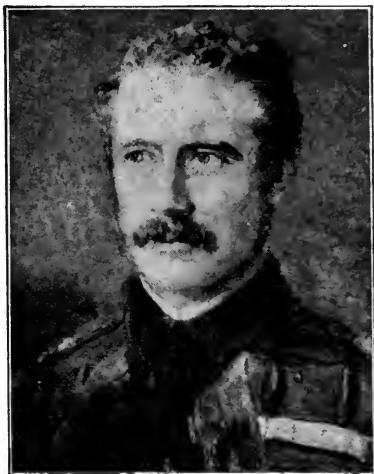
Kitchener began at once to help to improve matters, but before very much could be done there was a rising in the Sudan. A fanatic in that region began to call himself the Mahdi, or expected leader of "the faithful," that is, of the Mohammedans; the name Mahdi is Arabic, and signifies "He who is guided aright." He preached to the people, and some believed in him and became his followers. Then he told them they must rebel against Egypt, and drive all the Egyptians out of their land, for privately he hoped to make himself king of the Sudan. The Sudanese, remembering all the cruel injustices they had suffered under the bad Khedive, were only too willing to fight Egypt. The Mahdi soon had a large army, and Egypt had to send an army against him.

There had not been time for the new English officers to get the Egyptian troops properly clothed and drilled, but, in 1883, a force had to be sent to the Sudan, and it was under the command of Hicks Pasha, an English officer who had risen to the rank of general in the Egyptian army.

## PART II. KITCHENER, THE SUDAN, AND GORDON.

The Sudan was a very difficult country to move soldiers about in. There were no roads across the wastes and deserts, the heat was terrible, and there was very little water.

Hicks Pasha had guides who said that they knew the country, and would lead him to where he could best attack the Mahdi, but these guides were really traitors and spies. They led Hicks and his men farther and farther into the waterless wastes, until they were weak and ill from marching in the awful heat, with hardly anything to drink. Then the spies sent word to the Mahdi, who surrounded Hicks's force and killed them all.



General Gordon.

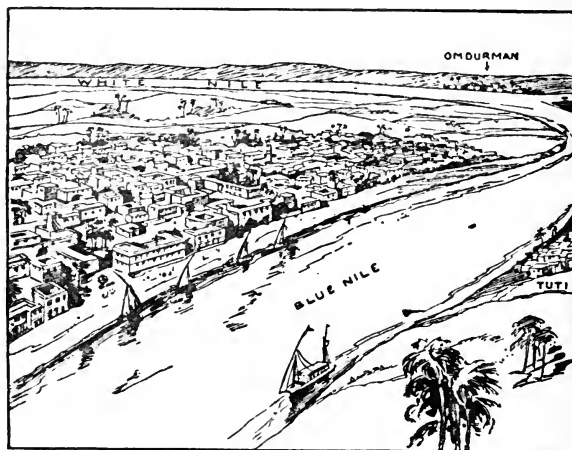
*National Portrait Gallery.*

After such a terrible disaster the Egyptians could not risk attacking the Mahdi again for some time, but two things had to be done at once. The frontier had to be defended, so that the Mahdi could not get into Egypt, and all the Egyptian soldiers who were still in garrison towns in the Sudan had to be collected and led into safety.

Kitchener was sent up the Nile to defend the frontier, and he did so well that, by a special order, he was made first a major, and then a lieutenant-colonel, in the field.

The man who was sent to rescue the scattered troops in the Sudan was *General Gordon*.

Gordon was a great soldier and a very great gentleman, absolutely fearless and unselfish. His orders were to collect all the troops he could, and lead them back at once into Egypt. But when he got to the Sudan, he could not bear to leave any Egyptian soldiers there at all, as he knew that they would be killed by the Madhi's followers.



Khartoum in 1885.

Instead of going back at once with most of the troops, he waited in a town called Khartoum, trying to get in touch with men scattered in distant outposts. Before these men could reach him, the Mahdi surrounded Khartoum, and there Gordon was besieged for nearly a year.

Kitchener had no men he could spare to send to Gordon's aid, but at last fresh troops were sent from England. When they were almost within sight of Khartoum, the Mahdi, after months of desperate effort, captured the starving city, and the English arrived to find that brave Gordon had been slain by the dervishes, the Mahdi's fierce followers.



In the same year as this tragedy (1885) Kitchener was made commander at Suakin, an Egyptian seaport on the Red Sea coast ; and later, he was very badly wounded in a battle. But, in spite of his wounds, he gained a victory and was promoted to the rank of colonel. His place in the Egyptian army grew more and more important, until at length, in 1892, he was made *Sirdar*, or commander-in-chief.

Under his command it became a very different army indeed from the ragged, underfed, underpaid rabble of earlier days. The soldiers were fit, well-fed, and well drilled, with money in the pockets of their smart uniforms ; and recruits came pouring in, until at last it became possible to think of attacking the Mahdi again.

Kitchener laid his plans with very great care. He proceeded up the Nile into the Sudan, and won his first battle at Ferket. Then he pressed on, and captured the town of Dongola, where the Mahdi had been born, and where the rebellion first began. But he had not yet reached his goal, which was Khartoum.

He did not advance at once, however. He stayed in Dongola long enough to have a rough railway built between the town and Egypt, to make sure of getting supplies of food and ammunition for his men. After having carried out this and other plans for guarding against a rear attack, he pressed on again.

The Mahdi had meanwhile got his army into a strongly entrenched and fortified position at the Atbara. But Kitchener planned his attack so well that he swept them out of their trenches in a battle lasting only forty minutes.

The dervishes retreated, fighting bravely all the way, to Omdurman, and under the walls of that city Kitchener closed with them and utterly defeated them with his terrible modern weapons, breaking the power of the

Mahdi for ever. Then Kitchener marched on to Khartoum, and held a service to the memory of Gordon at the very place where that gallant general had been killed thirteen years before.

From Khartoum he did other great things for the Sudan, at last bringing peace to the land and real union with Egypt, and so the name of this town through which he became famous was made part of his title, when he was created a baron—Baron Kitchener of Khartoum.

It was after this, as we have seen, that he helped to win the Boer War in South Africa, and there his victory was a very fine one indeed. For he not only defeated the Boers, he also won their respect and even friendship, so that the English and Boers learnt to trust each other, and, later, joined together in the great Union of South Africa.

### PART III. KITCHENER AND THE GREAT WORLD WAR.

Kitchener was made a general and a viscount, and then he was sent to another part of Britain's huge empire, India.

There was great unrest in India when Kitchener arrived there. The fierce Afghans often made plundering raids over the border from the north-west, and the Indians themselves had many grievances against their white rulers. In the seven years he was there, Kitchener managed to do so much to smooth these difficulties away that, when the terrible war of 1914-1918 broke out, India had a great, well-disciplined army eager to help England.

Just before he left India, Kitchener was made a field-marshal, and he went on a tour round the Empire, to Australia and Canada, helping these Dominions to organize their armies and defences. He got back to

London in 1911, in time to command the troops during King George's coronation.

After such a very full and busy life, most men would have liked to retire and rest ; but Kitchener was always eager for more work, and, a few days after King George V was crowned, he sailed away again to Egypt to take over Lord Cromer's work.

Again he was most successful, and was made an earl. He came to England on leave in the summer of 1914 to receive this honour, and so it happened that he was at home when the greatest and most terrible war in all history broke out in August, 1914.

At first Germany, Austria-Hungary, and Turkey fought on the one side, Great Britain, France, Russia, Serbia, and Belgium on the other.

The moment the war broke out, the Prime Minister asked Lord Kitchener to become Secretary of State for War, that is, to take over the control of Great Britain's armies. It was a tremendous work, and, in some branches of it, even Earl Kitchener had had no experience. Yet, though he realized perhaps better than anyone else in England how terrible the war would be, Kitchener faced it with such calm, self-possessed firmness and courage, that he gave faith and confidence to the whole country.

Compared with Germany, Britain had no army to speak of. The little Expeditionary Force of regular soldiers, first sent to help France, was so small that the Kaiser referred to it as a " contemptible little army." But the men were so brave that the nickname of " Old Contemptibles " now became one of great honour.

While they were fighting, Kitchener did the most amazing work of his great career. He turned England into a great military power ; he created armies.

He appealed for a hundred thousand men to volunteer

for the duration of war. He got them. More, he got them drilled and trained, though his best officers were already away fighting; and he got them uniforms and rifles, bayonets and ammunition, though the factories were short-handed because of the volunteering, and the seas were filled with mines and enemy warships, making it almost impossible to get many things needed from abroad.

In the face of all these difficulties Kitchener raised his armies, and then met more difficulties in equipping them with guns. For there were no factories in England capable of turning out cannon in sufficient number. The factories themselves had to be built first, the machinery for them made, and the staff found to run the machinery.

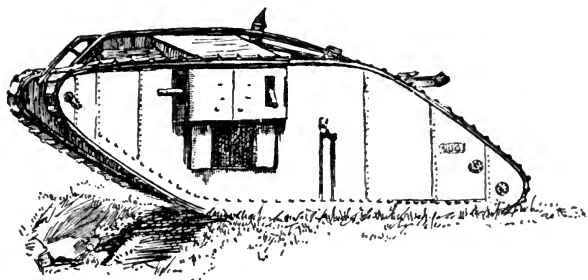
All this Kitchener, creator of new armies, managed to do, while at the same time, as the commander of old armies, he had to arrange for bringing troops from every corner of the Empire, and for feeding them when they had arrived.

From all over the world these Empire troops came pouring in. From Australia and New Zealand, India, Canada, South America, Africa, and the islands they came, proving, as nothing else could have done, the loyalty and union of Britain's *Commonwealth of Nations*.

Even with that, Kitchener's work did not end. He had also to smooth over divisions of opinion in the English government, and to secure the sanction of ministers for all he was doing, and, at the same time, to retain the confidence and good opinion of his Allies.

One of the most daring adventures of the whole war was the Dardanelles campaign of 1915, intended to open up communication between the Mediterranean and the Black Sea, in the interests of Russia, one of the Allied Powers. The campaign was a failure, but the heroism of the troops engaged will never be forgotten.

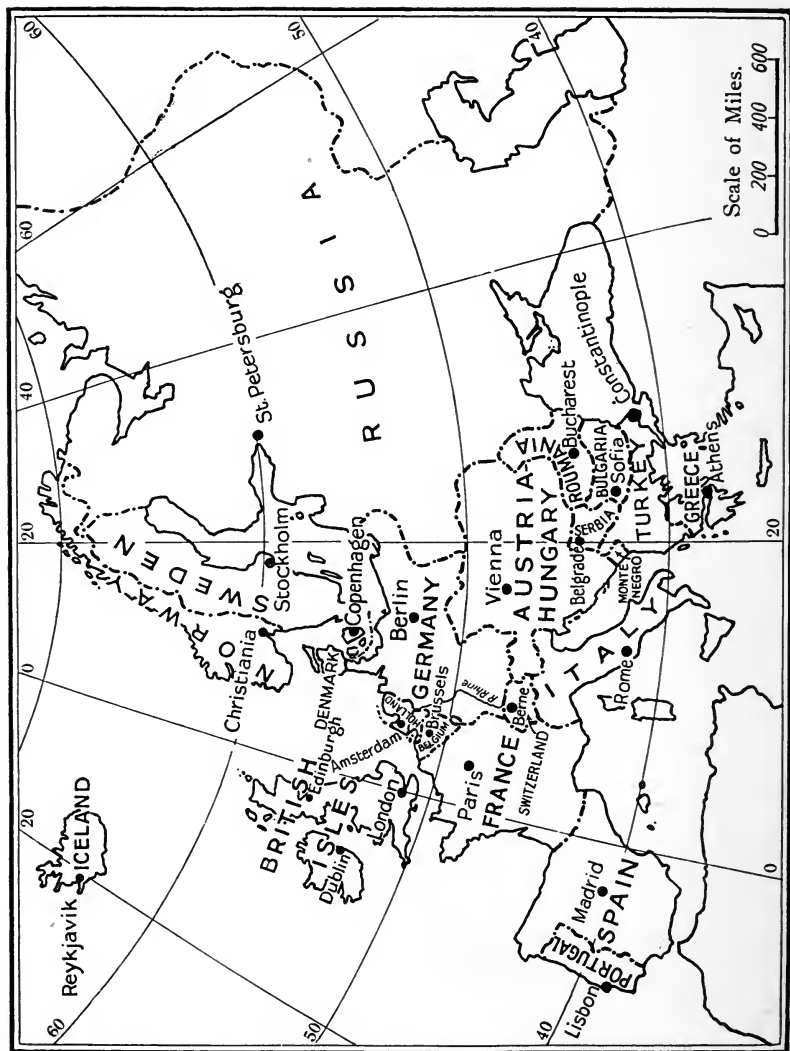
Towards the end of 1915, it was felt that the Dardanelles campaign must be brought to a close. Earl Kitchener travelled to the Near East, and satisfied himself that the withdrawal of the troops was necessary. On his way back, he called at Athens, and also at the Italian headquarters, to advise and help another of the Allied Powers.



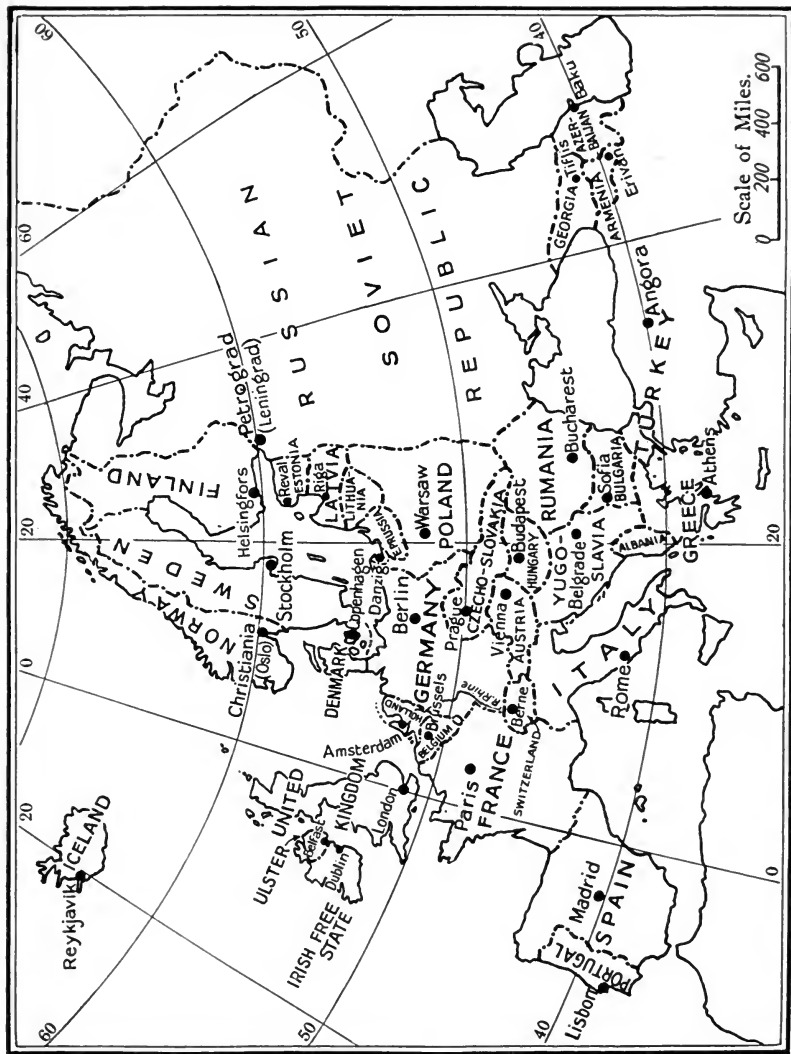
One of the first "tanks" to be used in the Great War.

In June, 1916, he again set forth, this time for Russia, to see our ally the Czar. But he never reached Russia. In H.M.S. *Hampshire* he set sail from Scapa Flow (Orkney Islands), but just off the Orkneys the ship struck a mine. In a few seconds it was all over. The *Hampshire* split and sank, and the great war minister and all his staff were drowned.

Kitchener made some mistakes ; it was not possible that one man doing so huge a work should not. For in the Great World War there was fighting in every part of the world, in China, in Africa, in Palestine and Mesopotamia, on the French, Italian, and Russian fronts, and upon the Seven Seas. Every possible form of weapon was used—mines under the ground ; submarines and torpedoes under the sea ; airships, aeroplanes, and sea-planes in the air ; tanks, armoured cars, poison gas, and bombs by land, as well as every kind of cannon and hand weapon.

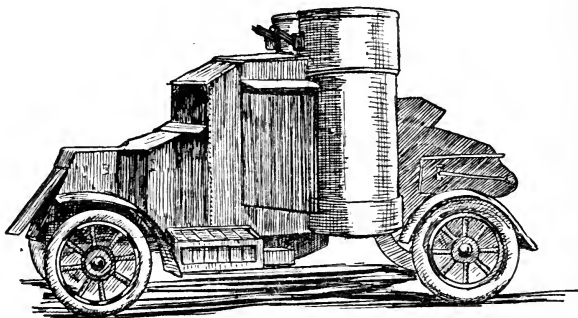


Europe in 1914, before the Great War.



Europe as divided after the Treaty of Versailles, 1919.

This tremendous struggle lasted for more than four years, ending on November 11th, 1918, when the Armistice was signed in an old railway carriage in a shell-torn wood. And perhaps Field-Marshal Lord Kitchener had done as much as any other one man to make the longed-for peace a victory for the Allies.



An armoured car as used in the Great War.

Men had come forward willingly to lay down their lives, if need be, at his bidding; they were proud to call themselves "Kitchener's army." From his splendid courage a whole nation had taken courage in a time of despair, for never in the blackest moments did he lose faith.

"I have no fear about winning the war," he always said; but he added, "I very much fear that we may not make a *good peace*."

He did not live to see peace come, but it is still perhaps possible for all of us to see to it that the peace that was made is a *good and lasting peace*.

#### QUESTIONS.

1. Tell the story of Lord Kitchener's work in Egypt.
2. What was Gordon sent out to do, and why did he delay in Khartoum?



3. What did Lord Kitchener do in South Africa and in India ?

4. Tell of Lord Kitchener's work in the Great War, and how he met his death.

5. What do you think Lord Kitchener meant when he said, " I very much fear that we may not make *a good peace* " ? Read about the *League of Nations*, and show how it is trying to make a lasting peace.

## 16. THE AGE OF GEORGE V : SOME PROBLEMS OF TO-DAY.

### PART I. THE BRITISH COMMONWEALTH OF NATIONS.

During the twentieth century great changes have taken place in what we used to call the British Empire. The old ways of governing the colonies have been shown to be out of date.

People at home, till the last quarter of the nineteenth century, did not take a very great interest in the distant colonies. But, all the time, the "colonies" were being opened up by railway and telegraph, and they were growing up into "nations."

The greatest change of all in the Empire, affecting the whole character of the Empire, has been the growth of self-government, such as we have in Britain itself. The old colonial system, concerned mainly with trade, had long been dying out. By the middle of the nineteenth century, or soon after, the various colonies of Canada, Newfoundland, Australia, and New Zealand, had become self-governing ; and, later, the provinces of South Africa followed this example (1872).

Then came a period of expanding and federating the Empire. Since 1885 about three and three-quarter millions of square miles had been added to the Empire. The fact that all the World seemed to be competing for

colonies, and the stirring tales of explorers and empire-builders, aroused greater interest at home, and fostered a new pride in the Empire "upon which the sun never sets."

The next step was the federation, or joining together, of each set of colonies in each continent to make them into a great Dominion. This happened in Canada (1867), Australia (1900), and in South Africa (1910). Each of these Dominions has a Governor-General appointed by the King, and his duties resemble those of the King at home. But while these Dominions manage their own affairs, they still remain linked with Britain in a common allegiance to the King-Emperor—the Crown which is the symbol of the long history of the British peoples at home and overseas.

Great Britain, the Dominions, and India join together in Imperial Conferences held in London. At these Conferences all the Prime Ministers of the Empire meet together as equals, to discuss affairs and problems that concern the Empire as a whole.

When the Treaty of Versailles (1919) was signed at the close of the Great War, the statesmen of the Dominions signed it as well as those of Britain; and the Dominions are not now bound, except of their own will, by any foreign treaties which Great Britain may make. All are members of the League of Nations.

It has been decided that the old name of British "Empire" is no longer suitable for this great brotherhood of free peoples, and so the title has been altered to the *British Commonwealth of Nations*. At the Imperial Conference in 1926 it was agreed that "free institutions are the life-blood of the Empire; peace, security, and progress are its objects."

Wireless Telegraphy and Telephony, and Flying, are

each year linking the various parts of this vast Commonwealth more closely together.

In Flying, the exploits of Sir Alan Cobham, an English airman, who flew to Cape Town and back, and then to Australia and back (1926), and the lone flight of Miss Amy Johnson to Australia (1930), were only the beginning of even greater feats. Imperial Airways to India, Australia, and the Cape have been organized.

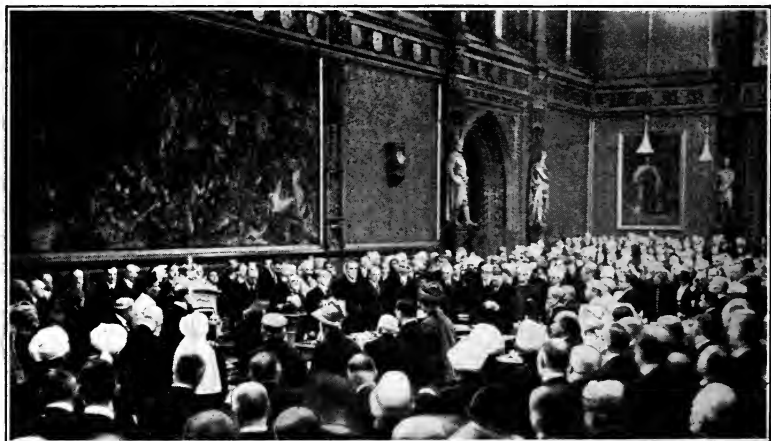
In "Wireless," too, great wonders have been accomplished. Not only is it possible for the King to flash a message almost at the same moment to every one of the Dominions, but wireless telephony has enabled the Prime Minister in London to have a chat with the Prime Minister in Australia over a distance of 22,000 miles of land and sea.

One of the great problems of our own day is the future of India. Many changes have taken place since Clive laid the basis of our Indian Empire. This vast country has been developed ; a greater sense of security has been given to the various peoples ; railways have been made ; education has been extended and improved ; irrigation works have been carried out, and many other improvements made.

That the Indian peoples should govern themselves has, in recent years, been set forth as the goal of British policy in India. But one great difficulty in India is that the population is made up of so many races, each with its own language and customs. A second difficulty is the deep differences that unfortunately exist between the followers of the two main religions—the Hindu and Mohammedan. A third difficulty is that, out of the huge population of about 320 millions, less than 25 millions can read and write. Yet for many years there has been a growing demand in India for *swaraj*, that is, full self-government ;

and much unrest and disturbance have been the consequence.

In 1928-9 a Commission, under Sir John Simon, visited India to study the conditions of the country and prepare a report. This was followed by a Round Table



Opening of the India Conference by H.M. the King in the House of Lords (1930).

*By courtesy of the India Conference Picture Bureau.*

Conference held in London in the autumn of 1930, at which native statesmen from India, including the native Princes of India, met British statesmen to discuss the future of India's government, which is, perhaps, Britain's most difficult problem of to-day. A further Round Table Conference was held in London in the autumn of 1931, at which details were discussed, and committees were appointed to consider various phases of the matter.

## PART II. THE LEAGUE OF NATIONS.

The Great War, which affected all the World, lasted from 1914 to 1918. The new and terrible methods of

war, such as the use of poison gas and of high explosives, showed to what fearful purposes science might be put ; and submarines with torpedoes, and aircraft with bombs, added terrors unknown in any previous war.

These horrors filled the minds of many men with a desire to prevent another such conflict ; and this desire led to what may, perhaps, in days to come, be looked upon as the greatest event of our own times—the founding of the *League of Nations*.

When the War ended, and the Treaty of Versailles was to be signed (1919), it was felt that something must be done to prevent, in the future, such a waste of human lives, destruction of property, and useless expenditure of money. Surely a better way could be found for settling disputes than by war !

Mr. Woodrow Wilson, the President of the United States, and other public men, suggested a kind of World Parliament. The World Parliament came into existence as the League of Nations. But, curiously enough, President Wilson's own country has so far refused to join it ; only one other great Power has remained outside—namely, Russia.

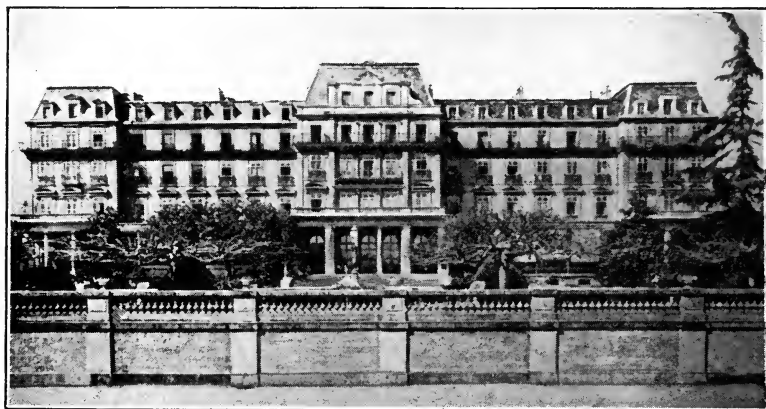
The main object of the League is to settle disputes between nations by arbitration instead of by war. This means that if two nations have a dispute, they shall not at once make war on each other, but shall first bring the



The late President Wilson.

facts before the League, and wait for the League to investigate the matter.

The League has already been able to prevent more than one war ; as, for instance, when in 1921, it settled the dispute between Sweden and Finland over the possession of the Aland Islands, and, more recently, disputes



The League of Nations Palace at Geneva.

*E.N.A.*

between Greece and Bulgaria, and between Italy and her neighbours on the Adriatic. These may seem small disputes when compared with the Great War, but one never knows what even a small disagreement may lead to ; for the Great War itself proved that a world-wide conflict may arise from what seems to be at first a small dispute.

But the League has other work to do as well as the prevention of war. It endeavours to improve the health and social conditions of the nations. It encourages the study of diseases and the search for means of preventing them. It limits and controls the traffic in opium and other dangerous drugs.

Already it has done many things to help the small new nations of Europe to recover from the effects of the War, and it tries to secure fair treatment for native races.

All nations that are members of the League are also members of the International Labour Organization. This branch of the League inquires into, and tries to improve, conditions of labour throughout the world.



A Session of the League of Nations, Geneva.

*E.N.A.*

The League has its headquarters at Geneva ; and it works through an Assembly, a Council, and a Secretariat or Civil Service. The Assembly of the League meets in Geneva every year, in September, and all the nations that are members of the League are represented.

At the Hague, in Holland, there is the Palace of Peace in which the World's Law Court, the permanent Court of International Justice, meets. This Court was founded by the League in 1922.

In the Palace of Peace there are gathered gifts from all the nations. The great gates by which one enters the grounds, were the gift of Germany ; the big clock over

the entrance was Switzerland's offering. The rose gardens are from the young people of the Hague; Belgium presented the wrought iron door; and the long corridors have been made of marble from Italy and Greece. Great Britain gave the stained-glass windows for the Hall of Justice. Chile and Argentina presented a beautiful statue



The Palace of Peace, The Hague, Holland.

E.N.A.

that stands on the staircase; it is a copy of the "Christ of the Andes," a bronze figure standing on the highest point of the Andes Mountains that commemorates the signing of a treaty between Chile and Argentina when these two countries were on the brink of war (1902).

The great South African soldier and statesman, General Smuts, has said, "I am confident that the League of Nations will yet prove the path of escape for



Europe out of the ruin brought about by the War." But this depends upon the sincerity of the members, and on the way in which the nations they represent back up their efforts. If this great experiment succeeds, the World will be a better and a happier place than it has ever been.

In the olden days an Englishman looked upon himself as a citizen of one *city* ; then he began to feel himself a citizen of a *nation* ; gradually his outlook became still wider, and he became the citizen of an *Empire*. But the League of Nations wants the boys and girls of all nations to-day to remember that they must be good citizens, not only of a City, or of a Nation, or of an Empire—but they must be good citizens also of the World.

So boys and girls can do something to help this wonderful work for peace. They must learn all they can about the activities of the League, and pray that the great ideal for which it stands may be realized. Then the poet Tennyson's vision will have come true :

" . . . the war-drum throb'd no longer and the battle-flags were furled  
In the Parliament of man, the Federation of the world."

#### QUESTIONS.

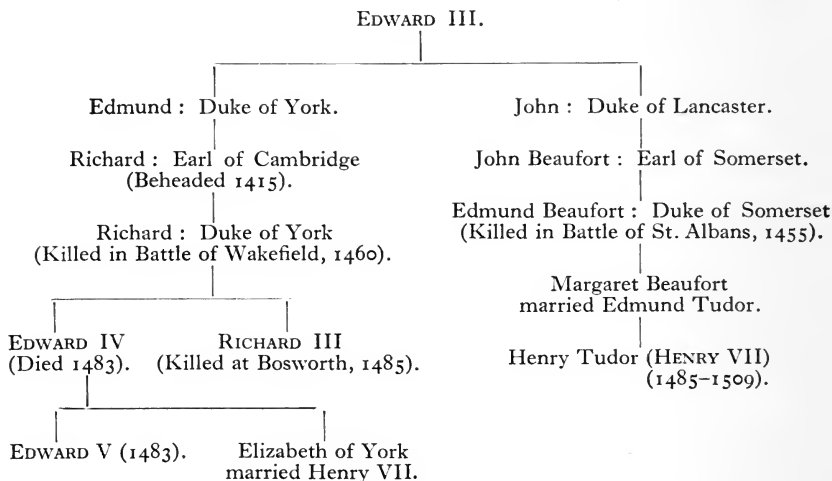
1. Show how the British " Empire " has changed in the twentieth century ; why is it now called the " British Commonwealth of Nations " ? Also explain how " wireless " and flying are uniting together this vast Commonwealth.

2. Account for the difficulty of the Indian problem, and explain its importance.

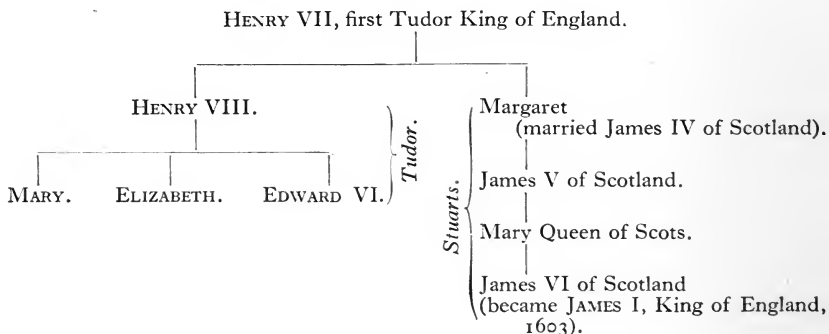
3. Say all you can about—

- (a) The League of Nations and its work ;
- (b) The Court of International Justice ;
- (c) The Hague Palace of Peace.

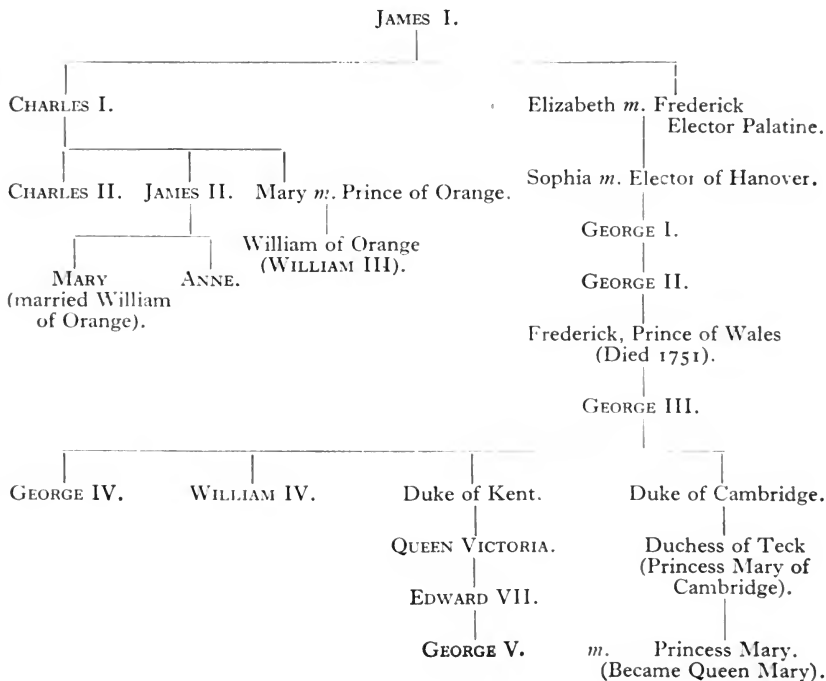
## TABLE SHOWING HENRY TUDOR'S DESCENT FROM EDWARD III.



## TABLE SHOWING CONNEXION OF TUDOR AND STUART KINGS.



# TABLE SHOWING CONNEXION BETWEEN STUARTS AND PRESENT LINE OF SOVEREIGNS.



## TIME CHART (1485-1700).

1485	Battle of Bosworth (1485).	HENRY VII (1485-1509)
90	America discovered (1492).	
	Cabot discovers Newfoundland (1497).	
1500		HENRY VIII (1509-1547)
10	Flodden Field (1513).	
20		
30	Reformation begins in England (1529). Death of Wolsey (1530). Act of Supremacy (1534).	
40	Execution of Thomas Cromwell (1540).	
50		EDWARD VI (1547-1553)
		MARY (1553-1558)
60		ELIZABETH (1558-1603)
70		
80	Attempt to colonise Virginia (1584). Execution of Mary, Queen of Scots (1587). Spanish Armada (1588).	
90		
1600	East India Company (1600). Gunpowder Plot (1605).	JAMES I (1603-1625)
10		
	Raleigh's last voyage (1617).	
20		CHARLES I (1625-1649)
	Petition of Right—Murder of Buckingham (1628)	
30	Wentworth (Earl Strafford) in power (1628-1640).	
40		
	The Great Rebellion (1642-1649). Battle of Marston Moor (1644). Execution of Charles I (1649).	Commonwealth (1649-1660)
50		
	Death of Cromwell (1658). Restoration of Stuart Kings (1660).	CHARLES II (1660-1685)
60		
	Plague in London (1665) Great Fire (1666).	
70		
80		JAMES II (1685-1688).
	Battle of Sedgemoor (1685). William of Orange lands in Torbay (1688).	WILLIAM III (1689-1702)
90	Battle of the Boyne (1690).	

## TIME CHART (1700-1930).

1700	5	Marlborough's Victories (1704-1709). Union of the Parliaments of England and Scotland (1707)	— ANNE (1702-1714)
	10	Treaty of Utrecht (1713). Jacobite Rebellion (1715).	— GEORGE I (1714-1727)
	20	Walpole, First Prime Minister (1721).	
	30		— GEORGE II (1727-1760)
	40	The Rebellion of the Young Pretender (1745) Pitt (Chatham) in office (1746).	
	50		
	60	Battle of Plassey (1757). Capture of Quebec (1759).	— GEORGE III (1760-1820)
	70	The Steam Engine (1765).	
	80	Declaration of American Independence (1776).	
	90	Independence of U.S.A. recognised (1783). French Revolution (1789).	
1800		Battle of Cape St. Vincent (1797). Irish Rebellion (1798). Act of Union of Great Britain and Ireland (1800). Battle of Copenhagen (1801). Battle of Trafalgar (1805).	
	10	Battle of Waterloo (1815).	
	20		— GEORGE IV (1820-1830)
	30	The First Railway (1825). Catholic Emancipation Act (1829). Peel's New Police The First Reform Bill (1832).	— WILLIAM IV (1830-37)
	40	The Great Trek (1836).	— VICTORIA (1837-1901)
	50	Sir G. Grey in New Zealand (1846). Repeal of Corn Laws ('46). Death of Sir Robert Peel (1850). Crimean War (1854).	
	60	The Indian Mutiny (1857). Death of Prince Consort (1861).	
	70	Reform Bill (1867). Dominion of Canada (1867). Education Bill—First Irish Land Bill (1870). Suez Canal Shares purchased (1875).	
	80	Queen Victoria proclaimed Empress of India (1876). First Boer War (1881).	
	90	First Home Rule Bill (1886).	
		Second Boer War (1899-1902).	
1900		Commonwealth of Australia (1900).	— EDWARD VII (1901-10)
	10	Union of South Africa (1909). Great War (1914-1918). League of Nations (1919).	— GEORGE V (1910- )
	20	Irish Free State founded (1920).	
	30	Round Table Conferences: India (1930 and 1931).	

## INDEX.

- Act of Union, 130, 163.  
 Adelaide, 140.  
 Afghans, 190.  
 Africa, 170, 172, 179, 180, 192, 193.  
 Aland Islands, 202.  
 America, 103, 105.  
     " Discovery of, 9.  
 American War of Independence, 105,  
     111, 114.  
 Angola, 172.  
 Anne Boleyn, 16-19.  
 Anne, daughter of James II, 79, 85, 86 ;  
     becomes queen, 87-91.  
 Anne of Brittany, 6, 7.  
     " Cleves, 19.  
 Anti-Corn Law League, 137.  
 Arcot, Taking of, 100, 101.  
 Argentina, 204.  
 Armada, 31, 32, 34.  
 Armistice, the, 196.  
 Arthur, Prince, son of Henry VII, 7.  
 Australia, 105, 139, 190, 192, 197, 198.  
 Austria, 94, 97, 115, 123.  
     " Emperor of, 87, 94.  
 Austria-Hungary, 191.  
  
 Babington Plot, the, 29.  
 Balaclava, Battle of, 152.  
 Baring, Sir Evelyn (afterwards Lord  
     Cromer), 185, 186.  
 " Barney" Barnato, 173, 174.  
 Basutoland, Rising in, 174.  
 Beaconsfield, Lord (*see* Disraeli).  
 Beaufort, Margaret, 1.  
 Bechuanaland, 174.  
 Belgium, 115, 174, 191, 204.  
 Bengal, 101-103.  
 Berlin Conference, 175.  
 Berwick, 8 ; treaty of, 49.  
 Black Hole of Calcutta, 102.  
     " Sea, 151, 155, 192.  
 Blake, 67, 68.  
 Blenheim, Battle of, 89.  
     " Palace of, 89, 90.  
 Boer Republics, 172, 183.  
  
 Boers, 171, 172, 174, 178, 179, 182, 183,  
     190.  
 Boer War, First, 178 ; Second, 182,  
     183, 190.  
 Bonaparte, Napoleon (*see* Napoleon).  
 Boscawen, 97.  
 Bosworth, Battle of, 3.  
 Bothwell, Earl of, 27, 28.  
 Boulogne, 121.  
 " Boycotting," 164.  
 Boyne, Battle of the, 85.  
 Brest, 121, 122.  
 Bright, John, 137, 138, 160.  
 Bristol, 10, 81.  
     " Riots, 136.  
 British Commonwealth of Nations, 192,  
     197, 198.  
     " Empire, 172, 197, 198.  
     " South Africa Company, 175.  
 Brittany, 2, 6, 7.  
 Buckingham, George Villiers, Duke of,  
     40, 42-46.  
 Bulgaria, 202.  
 Burke, Thomas, 165.  
  
 Cabots, John and Sebastian, 10.  
 Cadiz, 31, 36, 117, 123.  
 Calcutta, 101, 102.  
 Calicut, 10.  
 Calvin, John, 23.  
 Canada, 95-97, 100, 107, 190, 192, 197,  
     198.  
 Cape Breton Island, 97.  
     " Colony, 171, 172.  
     " of Good Hope, 9, 170, 183.  
     " St. Vincent, Battle of, 116.  
 Carberry Hill, Mary surrenders at, 28.  
 Carisbrooke Castle, 56.  
 Catherine of Aragon, 7, 16, 17.  
 Catholic Association, 130, 131.  
     " Relief Bill, 131.  
 Cavaliers, 53, 62-64.  
 Cavendish, Lord Frederick, 165.  
 Caxton, William, 9.  
 Cecil, William, 29.

- Charles I, 42-59, 62-66.  
 „ II, 67, 69, 70, 72, 73, 75-80.  
 „ V, Emperor, 16.  
 „ VIII of France, 6, 7.  
 „ Edward Stuart (the Young Pretender), 94, 95.  
 Chatham, Earl of (*see* Pitt, William)  
 Chile, 204.  
 China, 193.  
 Churchill, John (*see* Marlborough).  
 „ Sir Winston, 75.  
 Civil War, 65, 66.  
 Clarence, Duke of (afterwards William IV), 113.  
 Clive, Robert, 100-102.  
 Cobden, Richard, 137, 160.  
 Cobham, Sir Alan, 199.  
 Colchester, 56.  
 Colet, John, 9, 61.  
 Columbus, Christopher, 9.  
 Commonwealth, the, 68.  
 Constantinople, 152.  
 Cook, Captain James, 105, 139.  
 Copenhagen, Battle of, 120.  
 Corn Law passed, 137.  
 „ Laws repealed, 138.  
 County Councils, 168, 169.  
 Court of International Justice, 203.  
 Crimean War, 151-156.  
 Crimea, the, 151, 152, 156, 157.  
 Criminal Laws, Reform of, 127, 129.  
 Cromer, Lord (*see* Baring, Sir Evelyn).  
 Cromwell, Oliver, 55, 56, 66-70.  
 „ Richard, 69.  
 „ Thomas, Earl of Essex, 12-21.  
 Culloden, Battle of, 95.  
 Cumberland, William, Duke of, 95.  
 Cyprus, 184.  
 Dardanelles Campaign, 192, 193.  
 Darnley, Henry, Lord, 26-28.  
 Dartmouth, 35.  
 Declaration of Independence, 105.  
 Defoe, Daniel, 82.  
 Denmark, 120.  
 De Wet, 183.  
 „ Dispensing Power, 82.  
 Disraeli, Benjamin, Lord Beaconsfield, 158, 160-162, 168.  
 Dissenters, 128, 130, 131.  
 District Councils, 168.  
 Dongola, Capture of, 189.  
 Drake, Sir Francis, 29, 31, 34.  
 Drayton, Michael, 38.  
 Dupleix, 100, 101.  
 Dutch, 67, 68, 72, 73, 76-78, 170, 171.  
 East India Company, 96, 100, 175.  
 Edward VI, 19, 23.  
 Edward, son of Henry VI, 2.  
 Egypt, 118-121, 184-186, 189-191.  
 Elementary Education Act, 166.  
 Elizabeth of York, 3, 4.  
 „ Queen, 22-39.  
 Essex, 37.  
 Exeter, Siege of, 8.  
 Fairfax, 56.  
 Falkland, Lord, 54.  
 Felton, John, 46.  
 Ferket, Battle of, 189.  
 Feversham, 81, 82.  
 Finland, 202.  
 Flodden, Battle of, 15.  
 Florida, 34.  
 Fort Duquesne, 97.  
 „ San Juan, 112, 113.  
 France, 14-16, 24, 45, 94, 97, 105, 185, 191.  
 Francis I, 16.  
 „ Duke of Brittany, 2, 6.  
 „ the Dauphin (afterwards Francis II), 22, 24.  
 Frederick the Great, 97.  
 French Revolution, the, 114, 127.  
 Game Laws, Reform of, 129.  
 Geneva, 203.  
 Genoa, 115.  
 George I, 91-93.  
 „ II, 93, 94, 103.  
 „ III, 103, 163.  
 Germany, 19, 91, 174, 185, 191, 203.  
 Gilbert, Sir Humphrey, 32, 34.  
 Gladstone, William Ewart, 158-160, 164-167.  
 Gordon, General, 187, 188.  
 Grand Remonstrance, the, 51.  
 Great Britain, 191, 204.  
 „ Fire, the, 72, 73.

- Great Plague, the, 71, 72.  
 „ Trek, the, 172.  
 Greece, 202, 204.  
 Grey, Sir George, 139-148.  
 Guiana, Raleigh sails to, 36.  
 Guinegate, Battle of, 14.  
  
 Hague, the, 203, 204.  
 Hampden, John, 63.  
 Hampton Court, 56.  
 Hanover, 97.  
 Hardy, Captain, 126.  
 Hargreaves, 127.  
 Harlech Castle, Capture of, 2.  
 Hawke, 97.  
 Heights of Abraham, 99.  
 Henrietta Maria, 43, 50.  
 Henry VI, 2.  
 „ VII, 1-10, 12, 14, 15, 22.  
 „ VIII, 12, 14-22.  
 Hicks Pasha, 186, 187.  
 Holland, 105, 115.  
 „ Flooding of, 78, 84.  
 Holy League, the, 14, 15.  
 Home Rule, 160, 165.  
 „ Bill, 165, 166.  
 Howard, Lord Thomas, 36, 37.  
 Huguenots, 32.  
  
 India, 96, 100, 170, 190, 192, 198-200.  
 Indian Commission, 200.  
 „ Empire, Foundation of, 103.  
 Infanta Maria, the, 42, 43.  
 Inkerman, Battle of, 154.  
 Inquisition, the, 32.  
 International Labour Organization, 203.  
 Ireland, 7-9, 130, 160, 162-166.  
 „ Disestablishment of Protestant Church in, 164.  
 „ Rebellions in, 32, 85, 163, 166.  
 Irish Famine, 137, 164.  
 „ Free State, 166.  
 „ Ironsides, 55.  
 Italy, 115, 120, 202, 204.  
  
 Jacobite Rebellion, 91.  
 Jacobites, 85, 86.  
 James I of England, VI of Scotland, 38-44.  
 James IV of Scotland, 8, 15.  
  
 James V of Scotland, 21, 22.  
 „ Duke of York (afterwards James II), 75, 76, 78-86.  
 „ Edward (the Old Pretender), 91.  
 Jameson, Dr., 177, 179.  
 Jameson's Raid, 179, 180, 182.  
 Jane Seymour, 19.  
 Jennings, Sarah (see Marlborough, Lady)  
 Jervis, Sir John, 116, 117.  
 John of Gaunt, 1.  
 Johnson, Amy, 199.  
 Jonson, Ben, 38.  
  
 Kaiser, the, 191.  
 Khartoum, 188-190.  
 Khedive, the, 184-186.  
 Kildare, Earl of, 7-9.  
 Kimberley, 172, 173, 177, 182.  
 Kitchener, Horatio Herbert, Earl, 182-193.  
 Knox, John, 23.  
 Kruger, Paul, 178, 182.  
  
 Ladysmith, Siege of, 182.  
 Lagos, Battle of, 97.  
 Lancastrians, 1, 2.  
 Land Acts, 164, 165.  
 „ League, 164.  
 Langside, Battle of, 28.  
 Lansdowne, Lord, 135.  
 Laud, Archbishop, 48-51.  
 League of Nations, 198, 200-205.  
 Leith, 25.  
 Lesseps, Ferdinand de, 170.  
 Light Brigade, Charge of the, 152.  
 Limerick, Treaty of, 162, 163.  
 Livingstone, David, 178.  
 Lobengula, 175, 177, 178.  
 Long Parliament, 50.  
 Louis XIV, 76-78, 80, 83-87.  
  
 Madras, 101.  
 Mafeking, Siege of, 182.  
 Mahdi, the, 186-190.  
 Maidstone, 56, 161.  
 Malplaquet, Battle of, 89.  
 Malta, Capture of, 118.  
 Maoris, 142-148.  
 Margaret, daughter of Henry VII, 8.  
 „ Duchess of Burgundy, 7.



- Maria Theresa, 94.  
 Marlborough, John Churchill, Duke of, 75-83, 85-92.  
 Marlborough, Lady (Sarah Jennings), 79, 85-91.  
 Marlowe, Christopher, 38.  
 Marston Moor, Battle of, 55.  
 Marvell, Andrew, 59.  
 Mary, daughter of Henry VIII (afterwards Mary I), 16, 23.  
 „ daughter of James II (afterwards Mary II), 78, 79, 81, 83-86.  
 „ of Guise, 22.  
 „ Stuart, Queen of Scots, 21-31.  
 Masham, Mrs., 90.  
 Matabeleland, 174, 178.  
 Matabeles, 175-177.  
 Mesopotamia, 193.  
 Miller, Captain, 117.  
 Milton, John, 60-74.  
 Minden, Battle of, 97, 103.  
 Mir Jafir, 102.  
 Mohammedans, 186.  
 Monasteries, Dissolution of, 18.  
 Monk, General, 69.  
 Monmouth, Duke of, 81, 82.  
 Montcalm, 97-100.  
 Moray, Earl of, 28.  
 Municipal Corporations Act, 168.  
  
 Naples, 115.  
 Napoleon Bonaparte, 114, 115, 117-121, 123.  
 Naseby, Battle of, 55.  
 Natal, 171, 183.  
 Navigation Act, 67.  
 Nelson, Horatio, Lord, 108-123, 126.  
 Newbury, First battle of, 54.  
 Newcastle, Duke of, 135, 159.  
 Newfoundland, 197.  
 „ Discovery of, 10.  
 New Learning, the, 9.  
 „ South Wales, 105.  
 „ Zealand, 105, 139, 141-143, 145, 146, 148, 192, 197.  
 Nightingale, Florence, 149-158.  
 Nile, Battle of the, 118, 119.  
 Norfolk, Duke of, 134.  
 North America, 96.  
 Northern Ireland, 166.  
  
 O'Connell, Daniel, 131, 161.  
 Old Sarum, 135.  
 Omdurman, Battle of, 189.  
 Orange Free State, 172, 182, 183.  
 Oudenarde, Battle of, 89.  
 Oxford, Charles at, 52, 53, 65.  
  
 Palace of Peace, 203, 204.  
 Palestine, 184, 193.  
 Parish Councils, 168.  
 Parker, Sir Hyde, 120.  
 Parliamentary Reform, 134-136.  
 Parnell, Charles Stuart, 165.  
 Peace of Paris, 103.  
 Peel, Sir Robert, 127-136, 138, 159, 161.  
 Petition of Right, 46.  
 Philip II of Spain, 29, 32.  
 Phipps, Captain, 109.  
 Pilgrimage of Grace, 18.  
 Pittsburg, 97.  
 Pitt, William, First Earl of Chatham, 92-98, 103-105.  
 Pitt, William, the Younger, 107, 115, 127, 163.  
 Plague, the Great, 71, 72.  
 Plassey, Battle of, 102, 103.  
 "Pocket Boroughs," 134, 135.  
 Police Bill, 133.  
 „ the New, 132-134.  
 Portugal, 172, 174.  
 Portuguese East Africa, 172.  
 Powell, Mary, 65.  
 Prayer Book, Introduction of, 23.  
 Prestonpans, Battle of, 95.  
 Pride's Purge, 57.  
 Printing, Invention of, 9.  
 Protestants, 23, 44.  
 Prussia, 94.  
 Prynne, William, 62, 63.  
 Pym, 49, 50.  
 Pyramids, Battle of, 118.  
 Puritans, 44, 52, 62-64, 70, 96.  
  
 Quebec, 97-99, 103; capture of, 100.  
 Quiberon Bay, Battle of, 97.  
  
 "Race of Castlebar," 163.  
 Raleigh, Sir Walter, 32-42.  
 Ramillies, Battle of, 89.

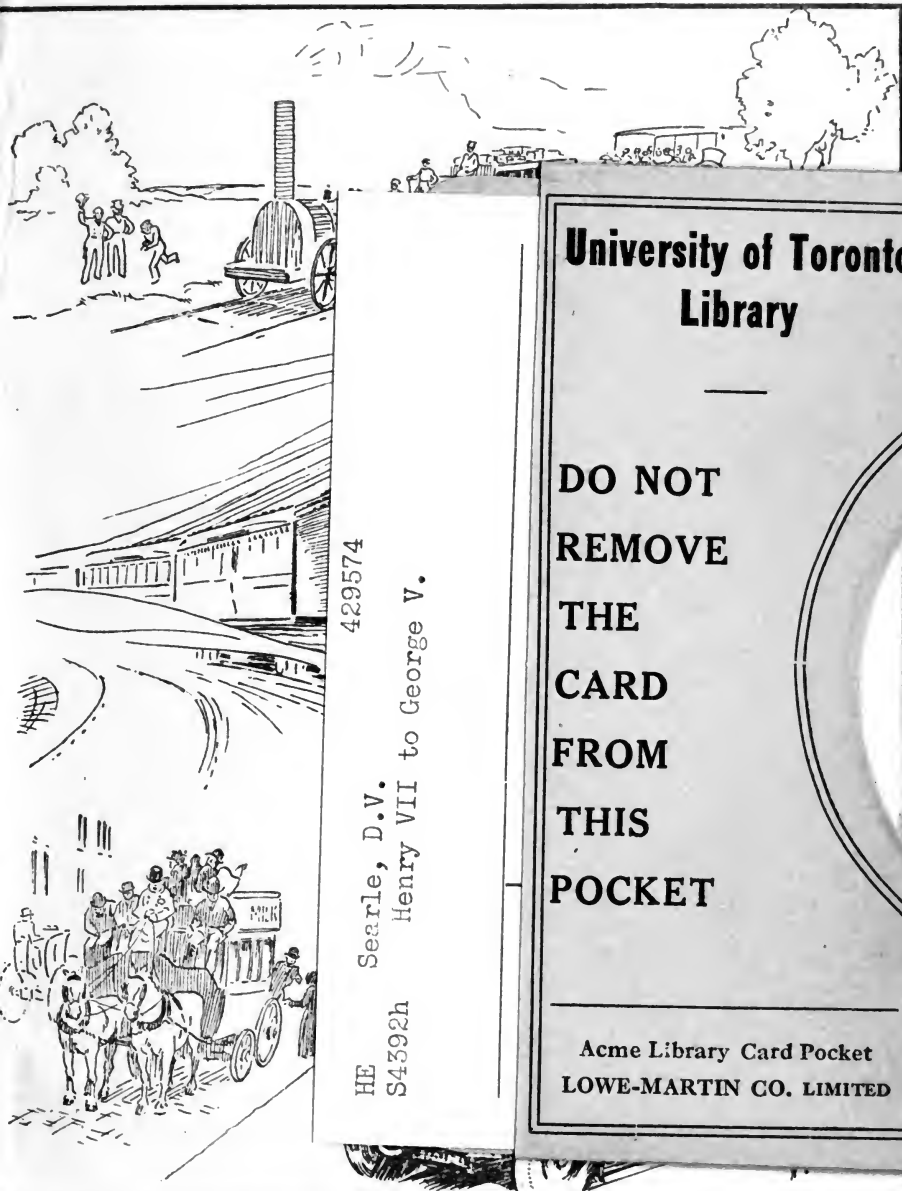
- Reform Act, First, 135, 136, 167 ;  
     Second, 162, 168 ; Third, 168.  
 Reformation, the, 17, 19, 23.  
 Restoration, the, 70.  
 Revolution of 1688, 162.  
 Rhodes, Cecil, 170-183.  
     ,, Herbert, 171.  
 Rhodesia, 178, 180.  
 Richard III, 2-4.  
 Ripon, Treaty of, 49.  
 Rizzio, David, 27.  
 Roberts, Lord, 182.  
 Roman Catholics, 81, 128, 130, 131.  
 " Rotten Boroughs," 135.  
 Roundheads, 53.  
 Round Table Conferences, 200.  
 Rump Parliament, the, 69.  
 Rupert, Prince, 54, 55.  
 Russia, 97, 120, 123, 151, 191, 193, 201.  
  
 St. Paul's School, 9, 61.  
 Salisbury, 176.  
 Santa Cruz, 117.  
 School Medical Service, 167.  
 Scotland, 8, 15, 21-25, 28, 64, 162.  
 Scutari, 152, 155.  
 Sebastopol, 151 ; siege of, 154 ; taking  
     of, 156.  
 Secondary Schools, 167.  
 Sedgemoor, Battle of, 82.  
 Selous, Frederick, 177.  
 Serbia, 191.  
 Seven Years' War, 103.  
 Seymour, Jane, 19.  
 Shakespeare, 38.  
 Simnel, Lambert, 5-8.  
 Simon, Sir John, 200.  
 Sinn Fein Rebellion, 166.  
 Smuts, General, 204.  
 Solway Moss, Battle of, 22.  
 South Africa, 172, 175, 178, 183, 190,  
     197, 198.  
     ,, Africa, Union of, 183, 190.  
     ,, America, 192.  
     ,, Australia, 140, 141.  
 Spain, 7, 14, 32, 42, 76, 94, 105, 112.  
 Spanish Netherlands, the, 76.  
 Spenser, Edmund, 37.  
 Spurs, Battle of the, 14.  
 Stoke, Battle of, 5, 6.  
  
 Stuart, Arabella, 38.  
 Suakin, 189.  
 Suckling, Maurice, 108, 109.  
 Sudan, the, 185-190.  
 Suez Canal, 170 ; shares bought, 162.  
 Supremacy, Act of, 17.  
 Surajah Dowlah, 101, 102.  
 Sweden, 120.  
     ,, and Finland, dispute between,  
         202.  
  
 Tamworth, 127, 131.  
 Tangier, 76.  
 Taunton, 81.  
 Tewkesbury, Battle of, 2.  
 Throckmorton, 25.  
     ,, Elizabeth, 34.  
 Tonnage and Poundage 47.  
 Tory Party, 89, 90.  
 Toulon, 118, 121.  
 Town Councils, 168.  
 Trafalgar, Battle of, 122, 123, 126.  
 Transvaal, the, 172, 176, 180, 183.  
 Tudor, Jasper, 1, 2.  
 Turkey, 191.  
  
 Ulster, 162, 165, 166.  
 Uniformity, Act of, 23.  
 Union, Act of 130, 163.  
 Union Jack, 163.  
     ,, of South Africa, 183, 190.  
 United States, 107.  
 Utrecht, Treaty of, 90.  
  
 Van Tromp, 67.  
 Vasco da Gama, 9.  
 Venice, 14.  
 Versailles, Treaty of, 198, 201.  
 Victoria, Queen, 136, 138, 139, 143, 156,  
     161, 162, 164.  
 Villeneuve, 122, 123.  
 Virginia, 34.  
  
 Walpole, Sir Robert, 92-94.  
 Warbeck, Perkin, 7, 8.  
 War of Jenkins's Ear, 94.  
     ,, of the Austrian Succession, 94-96.  
     ,, of the Spanish Succession, 87.  
 Wars of the Roses, 1.  
 War, the Great, 148, 166, 191-193, 196,  
     198, 200-202.

- Warwick, Earl of, 4, 5.  
War with the Dutch, 67, 68, 72, 73, 77,  
78.  
Watch and Ward, Statute of, 132.  
Watch Trusts, 132.  
Waterloo, Battle of, 126.  
Watt, James, 170.  
Wellington, Duke of, 126.  
Wentworth, Thomas, Earl of Strafford,  
46-50.  
Westbury, 131.  
Whigs, 89, 90.  
William of Orange, 77, 78, 82, 83, 162;  
becomes King of England, 84-87.  
Wilson, Woodrow, 201.  
Wolfe, James, 97-100.  
Wolsey, Cardinal, 13-17, 21.  
Worcester, Battle of, 67.  
Yorkists, 1, 2, 4-7.









429574

HE Searle, D.V.

Henry VII to George V.

S4392h

**University of Toronto  
Library**

**DO NOT  
REMOVE  
THE  
CARD  
FROM  
THIS  
POCKET**

Acme Library Card Pocket  
LOWE-MARTIN CO. LIMITED

